

Wm. L. Cross Lib.

hbl, stx

Jou



3 9153

AL / LIT / I N A V E L / R O U M D E V O L U T I O N

70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80
51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70

UNIVERSITY of CONNECTICUT LIBRARY



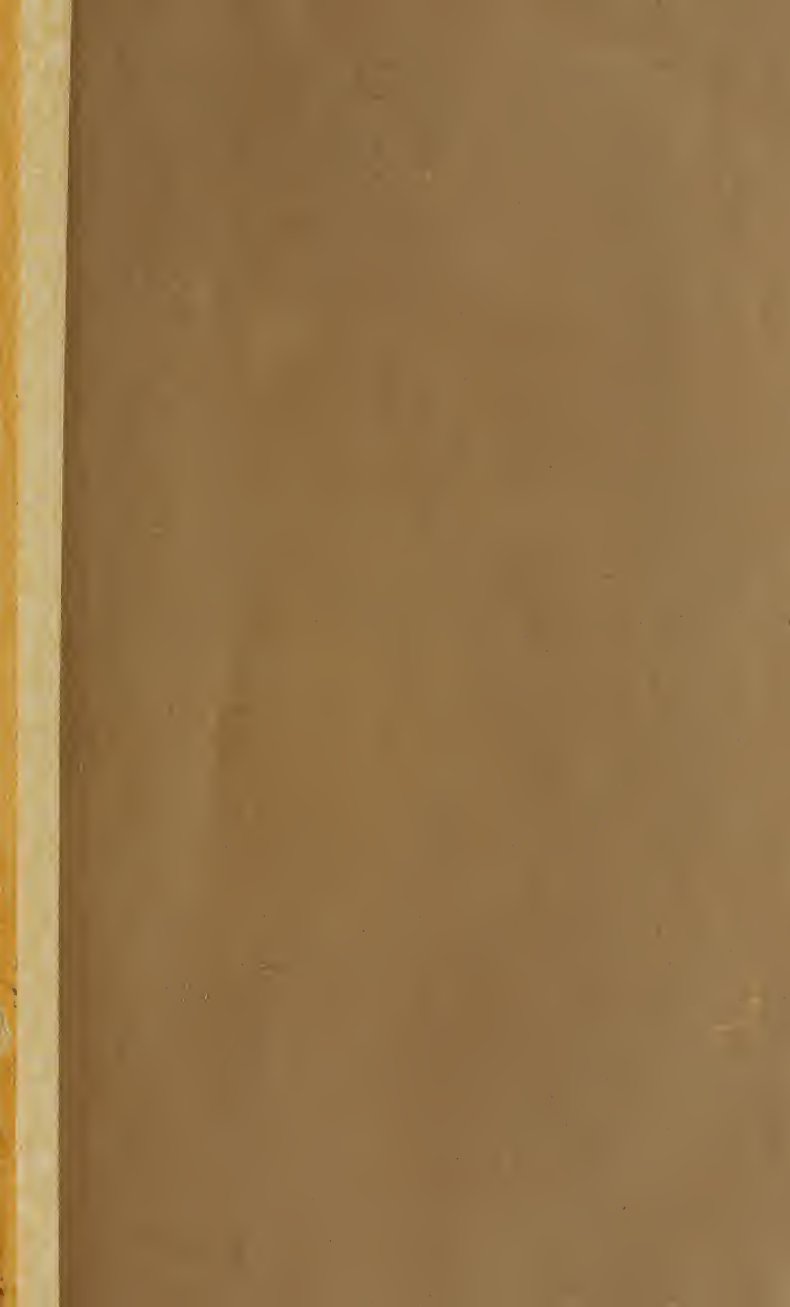
Charter Oak

PLEASE
DO NOT REMOVE
CARD.

LOST, PLEASE
RETURN TO U-5

3 9153 4 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80

G
440
W75

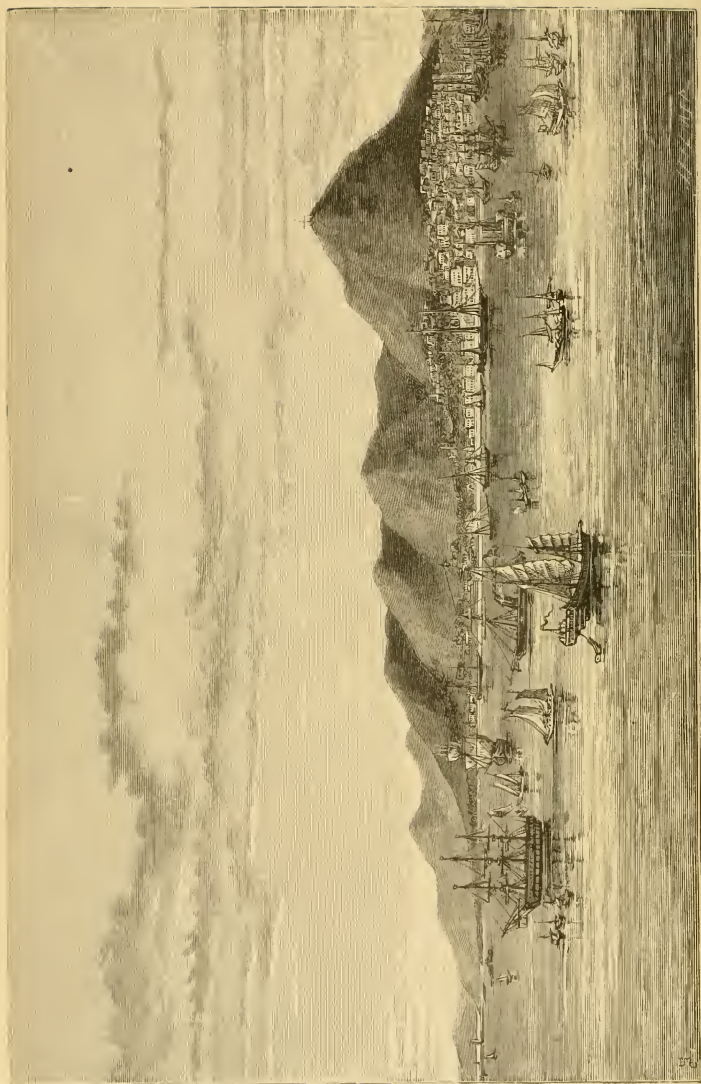


Lewis. R. Dunn D. D.

Present by author.

G. E. Winant.

Ringen Point }
Janey 2nd 1888. }



HONG-KONG.

JOURNAL

OF

TRAVELS AROUND THE WORLD.

*TWENTY-SEVEN THOUSAND FIVE HUNDRED
MILES OVER SEA AND LAND.*

BY

G. E. WINANTS.
—

NEW YORK :

PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR BY D. APPLETON & Co.

1877.

G
442
W75

COPYRIGHT BY
G. E. WINANTS,
1877.



SURPLUS

DUPLICATE

P R E F A C E.

THE following pages contain a simple narrative—without pretense to literary elegance—of travels around the world, which were full of interest and instruction to me. I can but hope that my plain account of them will be of equal interest to others, and have the satisfaction of furnishing it for the perusal of such friends as may desire to read it.

A journey around the world is a very different undertaking to-day from what it was when Columbus first crossed the Atlantic. The vessels in which he made his adventurous voyages are said to have been less than one hundred tons' burden, but now some of our ocean-steamers are of the capacity of five thousand tons. Before the introduction of steam upon the sea, it took a sailing-ship from thirty to forty days to cross the Atlantic, but now the passage can be made in less than ten days, and the time is reduced in the same proportion in the voyage around the world.

G. E. WINANTS.

NEW YORK, *November 1*, 1876.

10/2/8

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
PREFACE.....	8
CHAPTER	
I. NEW YORK TO SAN FRANCISCO.....	9
Albany—Niagara Falls—Detroit—Chicago—Omaha—Cheyenne—Laramie City —The Plains—The Rocky Mountains—The Devil's Gate—Salt Lake City— The Mormons—The Tabernacle—Brigham Young—The People—Cape Horn —Union Pacific Railroad—Sacramento.	
II. CALIFORNIA.....	24
San Francisco—When settled—The Golden Gate—Oakland—Fruit—The Cli- mate—The Seal-Rocks—Woodward Garden—Telegraph Hill.	
III. ON THE PACIFIC.....	31
The Steamship Alaska—Letters mailed—Dropping a Day—A Gale of Wind— Whales—Native Boats.	
IV. EXCURSIONS IN JAPAN.....	43
Yokohama—Yeddo, or Tokio—Coolies—The Tycoon's Castle—Buddhist Tem- ple—The Mikado—The Capital—The Shogun—Atangoreama—Stago Yama —Praying to their Gods—A Pagoda—The Five Hundred Sages—Kamakura —Hasemura—Tea-House—Enoshima—The Dragons—Katase—Fusi Yama —Totsuka—The Execution-Ground—Seminary for Young Ladies—Mission- ary Work.	
V. JAPAN.....	57
The Territory, Population, and Government—Dwelling-Houses—The Daimios —Ladies' Black Teeth—Shaved Heads—Lacquer—The Arts—Costume.	
VI. INLAND SEA OF JAPAN AND YELLOW SEA OF CHINA.....	63
Flying-Fish—Hiogo—Osaka—Beauties of the Sea—Shine Saka—Agricultural Implements—Panoramic View of Four Hundred Miles—Nagasaki—Taka- boko Island—Yang-tse-kiang River.	
VII. SHANGHAI TO HONG-KONG.....	69
Population, Industry, People, and Government—Manufactures—The Magnetic Needle—The Art of Printing—Literature—Money—Shopping—Canals—Chi- nese Village—Pagoda—On the Pacific—Catching Fish at Sea.	
VIII. HONG-KONG.....	78
The Happy Valley—Victoria Park—Cemeteries—Dwellings—The Governor's Palace—The City Hall—The Colonial Prison—Child-Stealing—Sail in the Harbor.	
IX. CANTON AND ITS SIGHTS.....	82
The Steamer White Cloud—Fortifications—Whampoa—Native Boats—The Pearl River—Population—The Walls of the City—Chinese Shops—Buddhist Temples—Joss-House—Chinese Boat-Residences—Typhoons—Tea: how grown and cured.	

CHAPTER	PAGE
X. RELIGION OF THE CHINESE.....	104
The State Religion—Confucianism and Buddhism—Ancestral Worship—Christianity in China—Idols—Priests.	
XI. CHINESE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.....	127
A Chinaman's Suicide—Costume—The Compression of Ladies' Feet—Coffins—Eating—The Gates of Hell—Weddings—Opium—Government.	
XII. CHINESE INDUSTRY.....	143
Agriculture—Clans—Farmers—Farming Utensils—Reaping—Irrigation—Silk—Embroidery—Cotton—Chinese Loom.	
XIII. HONG-KONG TO CEYLON.....	150
The Steamship Goleconda—The China Sea—A Gale—Singapore: its Population and Climate—Fruit-Trees—Vegetation—Birds—Monkeys—Costume—Wild Game—Fish—Christian Missionary Work—Dwellings—Malacca Straits—Penang—A Waterfall—Spice-Trees—Snake-Grass—Reptiles—Native Boats—A State-Room filled with Water.	
XIV. CEYLON.....	164
Point de Galle—Currency—Wild Beasts—Natives—Climate—Christian Mission Work—Oriental Spice-Trees—Native Costume—Cocoonut-Tree—Bread-fruit—Jaca-fruit—Spice-Trees—Fish—Buddhist Temples—Priests—Idols—Beggars—Money-Brokers—Cinnamon-Trees.	
XV. CEYLON TO CALCUTTA.....	173
Bay of Bengal—Madras, India—The Ship anchors in the Hoogly River—Water-Snakes—Tiger Island—Ex-King of Oude's Palace—Landing.	
XVI. CALCUTTA.....	181
Population—Harbor—Dwellings—Gardens—Oriental Trees—Native City—City of Palaces—Streets—Coolies—Fort William—The Black Hole of Calcutta—The Nabob—Serampore Christian Mission—Carey and Ward—College of Fort William—The Zenana Mission—The Bishop's College—Asiatic Society—Government Houses.	
XVII. CALCUTTA AND ITS SIGHTS.....	191
Kali Ghaut—The Seven Tanks—Reptiles—Wild Beasts—The Bird-of-Paradise—A Fish-Pond—The Royal Botanical Garden—A Mahogany-Grove—The Banyan-Tree—The Garden of Eden—Burning Human Bodies—American Consul.	
XVIII. GOVERNMENT AND CASTE IN INDIA.....	196
Alexander the Great—His Flotilla—The Ganges River—The East India Company—The Viceroyalty—Form of Government—Heathen Gods—Superstition of Caste.	
XIX. CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES.....	208
The Women of India—Nose-Rings—Costume—Robbers—Pressing Troops—Money-lending—Mode of Living.	
XX. PRODUCTS OF INDIA.....	212
Agricultural Implements—Irrigation—Rice, Cotton, and Silk Culture—Cashmere Wool—Sugar—Tobacco—Indigo—Opium—Gold, Silver, and Precious Stones—Cashmere Shawls—The Rainy Season—Thunder and Lightning.	
XXI. CALCUTTA TO BENARES.....	218
The East India Railway—Bedding for the Journey—Poppy-Fields—The Jungle—The Ganges—Mogul Serai—Bridge of Boats—Clark's Hotel.	
XXII. BENARES.....	221
Population—The Monkey Temple—Bull, Peacock, and Monkey Worship—Burning the Dead—The Golden Temple—Sarnath—The Devil-Dance—The Sankata Devil Temple—Snake-Charmers—A Wedding—A Funeral.	

CHAPTER	PAGE
XXIII. LUCKNOW AND CAWNPORE.....	241
Minarets—The King of Oude—Cawnpore—Cantonments—The Mutiny of 1857—The Memorial Garden—The Well in which the Women and Children perished.	
XXIV. AGRA.....	250
The Gates—The Fortress—The Judgment Seat—The Hall of Audience—The Pearl Mosque—The Taj Mahal—Tombs—The Grand Mosque—The Echo—The Park—The Garden of Rest—The Prince of Wales—Elephants.	
XXV. DELHI.....	260
An Excursion—Toogluckabad—Bullock-Carts—Fortification—The Palace and Citadel—The Music-Hall—The Peacock-Throne—The Mosque of Jumma Musjid—Asoka's Pillar—Panthan Fort—The Kootub Minar—The Iron Pillar—Rev. Dr. Smith—The Zenana Mission—Himalaya Mountains.	
XXVI. ALLAHABAD.....	276
The Fortifications—The Ganges and Jumna Rivers—A Hindoo Fair—Concourse of People—Idols—Christian Missionary Work—Bridge across the Jumna River.	
XXVII. JUBBULPORE TO BOMBAY.....	284
Tigers seen on the Road—Herds of Deer and Antelopes—Birds—A Mountain on Fire—Jubbulpore—Precious Stones—The Prison—A Hindoo Temple—Monkeys—The Ghauts—Mountain Scenery.	
XXVIII. BOMBAY.....	291
Population—Costume—Mohammedan Fair—Elephanta Island—Malabar Hill—Manner of disposing of the Dead—Parsees—Fire-Worshippers—Mission-Work—A Wedding.	
XXIX. BOMBAY TO SUEZ.....	299
The Steamship <i>Erl-King</i> —The Indian Ocean—Flying-Fish—Aden—Mocha—The Red Sea—Mount Sinai—Egyptian Money.	
XXX. EGYPT.....	311
Suez—The Suez Canal—Ismailia—Sandy Desert—Beggars—Population—Cairo—Government—Island of Rhoda—The Citadel—The River Nile—The Pyramids—The Sphinx—Christian Missionary Work—Camels and Donkeys—The Great Sahara Desert—Vegetation—Alexandria—Pompey's Pillar—Cleopatra's Needle.	
XXXI. MEDITERRANEAN SEA.....	330
The Island of Candia—Strait of Messina—Sicily—Volcano of Mount Etna—Volcano of Stromboli.	
XXXII. ITALY: NAPLES, ROME, PISA, GENOA, TURIN.....	334
Bay of Naples—Mode of Living—Dwellings—Volcano of Solfatara—The Museum—Mount Vesuvius—Pompeii—Rome—St. Peter's Church—The Colosseum—The Temple of Venus—The Roman Senate-Chamber—The Pantheon—The Forum—The Vatican—The Mamertine Prison—Pisa—The Leaning Tower—The Cathedral—Genoa—Christopher Columbus—San Lorenzo—Turin—The King's Palace—Mont Cenis Tunnel.	
XXXIII. SWITZERLAND.....	357
Geneva—Dwellings—Population—Language—Money—Mont Blanc—The Protestant Cathedral—The Yachts and Steamers on the Lake.	
XXXIV. FRANCE: MÂCON, DIJON, PARIS, HAVRE.....	360
Paris—The Fashions—Population—Place de la Concorde—Colonne Vendôme—The Palais Royal—The Crystal Palace—The Siege of Paris—The Museum—The Bois de Boulogne—The Council of Arbitration—The Fortifications—The Tuileries—The Obelisk of Luxor.	

CHAPTER		PAGE
XXXV.	ENGLAND: LONDON, LIVERPOOL.....	369
	The Great Metropolis—Buckingham Palace—St. Paul's Cathedral—Rev. Dr. Spurgeon—Wax-Figures—Windsor—Sight-seeing in London—Westminster Abbey—Liverpool—Population—The Docks—Ship-building—The Harbor—The Hotels.	
XXXVI.	WALES: CHESTER, BANGOR, HOLYHEAD, CONWAY.....	382
	The Castle of Chester—The City Walls—Surroundings—Bangor—Slate-Quarries—Bethesda—Prospect Park—Old Protestant Cathedral—Market-Day—Holyhead—The Harbor and Fortifications combined—Birds'-Nests—Girls and Boys—Conway—Conway Castle—The River.	
XXXVII.	ATLANTIC OCEAN.....	389
	The Steamship Italy—Sea-Sickness—Rough Weather—Arrival at Quarantine—Home again.	

JOURNAL OF TRAVELS

AROUND THE WORLD.

CHAPTER I.

NEW YORK TO SAN FRANCISCO.

September 7, 1875.—Mrs. G. E. Winants and I leave Bergen Point, New Jersey, upon a tour around the world. We take passage this afternoon on the steamer Chancellor for New York; at six o'clock we embark upon the steamer St. John, the Hudson River night-boat for Albany, *en route* for San Francisco, distance thirty-three hundred miles; fare by palace-cars one hundred and thirty-six dollars apiece in gold.

September 8th.—Albany. We arrive here this morning at seven o'clock; take breakfast at the Delavan House; at 9 A. M. we resume the tour by the New York Central Railroad, arriving at Niagara Falls at 9 A. M., distance four hundred and forty miles. Take rooms in the Cataract Hotel; board four dollars and a half per day for each person.

September 9th.—Niagara Falls doubtless are to-day, as centuries ago, ever charming and beautiful to behold,

and may justly be classed among the great wonders of the world. They are the pride of America; their grandeur, magnitude, and magnificence, are well known to all the civilized world. Ever since the discovery of this wonderful cataract, millions of people have flocked thither from all countries, to gaze with feelings of the deepest solemnity on the tumultuous fall of waters, and to adore the power and majesty of the Almighty as these are exhibited and realized. The Great Lakes of North America, namely, Superior, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, pour the flood of their accumulated waters into Lake Ontario through a channel of about thirty-six miles in length, called the Niagara River, which is part of the boundary-line between Canada and the State of New York. Twenty-two miles below its commencement at Lake Erie are the famous Falls of Niagara. These Falls are divided into two by Goat Island: the American Falls are nine hundred feet wide by one hundred and sixty-four feet high; the Horseshoe, or Canadian Falls, are two thousand feet wide, and one hundred and fifty-eight feet high. It is said that the discovery of this stupendous waterfall was first made by a white man, a French Jesuit missionary, in the year 1678. There are two bridges which span the Niagara River: one, about two miles below the Falls, used principally by railroad-cars and carriages; and the other is but a few hundred yards below the cataract, designed chiefly for foot-passengers and light carriages. A large number of people, becoming too venturesome, have lost their lives by being carried over the Falls. Even to-day a gentleman lost his grasp of the

bank, and was carried over by the rushing waters, never to rise again. This evening we leave Niagara by the nine o'clock train *en route* for Chicago, distance about five hundred and fifty miles.

September 10th.—We arrive at Detroit at 7 A. M., where we stop for three hours and take breakfast. At 9 P. M. we arrive in the city of Chicago, and put up at the Sherman Hotel; board four dollars apiece per day.

September 11th.—We devote the time principally in looking over the city, sight-seeing. The burned district has been built over by the construction of larger and more substantial buildings of stone, in a more uniform and elaborate style; there is only a slight tracing of the burned district visible to designate the large conflagration of 1871, which spread over two square miles of the best section of the city.

September 12th.—This being the Sabbath, we attended the Presbyterian Church, two miles out from the business part of the city.

September 13th.—This morning by the ten-o'clock train we resume our tour *en route* for Omaha, distance five hundred miles. At 1½ P. M. we arrive at Mendota, and take dinner; at 7 P. M. we take tea at Burlington, where we cross the Mississippi River.

September 14th.—This morning at ten o'clock we arrive at Council Bluffs, on the banks of the Missouri River, where we stop about thirty minutes. After crossing the bridge, on the opposite side of the river, we are in the city of Omaha, where we make another stop. Omaha contains a population of about eighteen thousand, and

suddenly sprang into existence by the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad. This road, with the Central Pacific and other connecting links, reaching from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, is conceded to be the longest in the world. Though but little faith was at first felt in the successful construction of this great railway, no one at the present day can fail to appreciate the enterprise which characterized the progress and final completion of this road, and its immense value both to our own people and the world at large. The first contract for construction was made in the year 1863, and the road was completed in 1869; over it cars have since been running regularly. This immense road is from Omaha to San Francisco two thousand miles in length, and from New York to Omaha thirteen hundred miles, making together a continuous line of rail of thirty-three hundred miles from New York to San Francisco. The completion of the Union and Central Pacific Railroads, the great highway of nations, has opened a new era in the passenger-travel of the country. Crossing over the American Continent by rail in seven days, from ocean to ocean, is as a household word throughout the land. The steady increase in the number of people going to and returning from the great West enables us to form some idea of the future mammoth proportions to which the passenger-traffic will arrive. When I crossed over this road in 1869, the average was about twenty passengers per day, and now it has increased to about one hundred and twenty-five first-class travelers per day, besides the emigrants. The road has but few tunnels, and these pass

through a soft species of rock or rotten-stone. The principal part of the road runs over a plain as level as the sea, except in crossing over the Sierra Nevadas and the Black Hills of the Rocky Mountains, where we find a heavy but gradual up-grade. The greatest elevation on the Union Pacific is at Sherman, eight thousand two hundred and forty-two feet, and was said to be the greatest height that railroad-cars ever reached; but there are higher points now reached by rail in South America. The variegated peaks of the mountains are covered with perpetual snow. The grade of the Central Pacific as it winds around these high peaks is one hundred and sixteen feet to the mile, the highest point being about seven thousand feet. As we approach the summit of the Sierra Nevada, on our left the rugged mountain-bluffs rise in quick succession to a great height, even above the clouds, while on the right the deep ravine descends abruptly for over a thousand feet. This wild, picturesque scene is most interesting, striking one with awe and astonishment at the power of Him who modeled the world, and made everything therein for the benefit and enjoyment of man.

The surface of the country between the Black Hills and the Rocky Mountains, and upon the Rattlesnake Range, is level for several hundred miles; hence the road has an easy grade, even up to the top of the mountains, winding its way gently around the higher peaks. Taking the road altogether, it has not cost for grading, per mile, more than half as much as our ordinary Eastern and Southern roads. There are serious objections, how-

ever, to the locality of the road, namely: if it had been constructed some three or four hundred miles farther south, it would have run through a more fertile section of country, and would have built up more rapidly towns and cities, and also avoided the cold climate, as well as the banks of snow, which are said to be piled up during the lengthy winters like mountain-tops. The railroad companies have made some provision against the heavy snow-fall by constructing snow-sheds over the track, which extend for many miles, and yet what has been done is not sufficient to break off the heavy drifts which loom up from forty to sixty feet high. In consequence of not having any rainfall, during the summer and autumn months on the mountains, for the distance of over a thousand miles, there is not a spear of grass or green herb to be seen, except at intervals along some small brook in which the snow-water finds its way from off the distant mountain-tops.

On leaving Omaha we stop for thirty minutes at Fremont and take dinner. This is a small town containing about three thousand inhabitants, and is said to be rapidly on the increase. At 6 P.M. we arrive at Grand Island and take supper. This place, it is claimed, will become an important railroad centre. It seems to have a good supply of churches, schools, hotels, and stores.

September 15th.—This morning early, as we were gliding over the plains, we saw in the distance a fine herd of antelope. All through the day, at intervals, we passed by numerous emigrant-wagons, loaded with men, women, and children, some drawn by oxen and some

by mules, dragging their way through the prairies, some going west, others going east. We stop at Sidney for thirty minutes and take breakfast. The Government has established a military post at this station, and erected extensive barracks and warehouses for the better protection of the road. At one o'clock we stop at Cheyenne



CHEYENNE.

and dine. This town is located at the base of the Rocky Mountains; it contains a population of about four thousand souls, and is the county-seat of Laramie County, and the capital of Wyoming Territory. At one time Cheyenne is said to have been infested with roughs, gambling-hells, and dance-houses, and had frequent murders by night and day; this lasted until the quiet and better class of citizens took the law into their own hands and

hung some of the desperate characters; others fled, for fear of arrest, and now the town is in a flourishing condition. We stop at Fort Laramie and take supper. This fort was established in 1869, to protect the men working on the railroad against the Indians, who made several raids upon the road and killed many of the laborers.

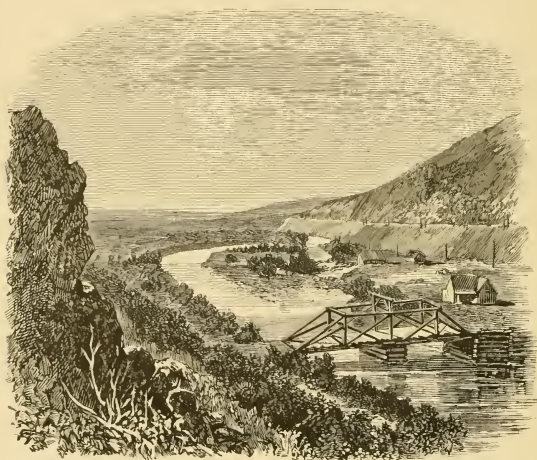
September 16th.—This morning we breakfast at Green River. It is said that, in early times, an important trading-post was located near this station, held by the Mormons, who reaped a rich harvest of from five to twenty dollars a team for crossing them over the river, according as the owners were able to pay. We stop for thirty minutes at Evanston and take dinner. Later in the day we pass by the "One-Thousand-mile-Tree," called by that name on account of its being one thousand miles from Omaha. After leaving the big tree we soon pass through the Devil's Gate, and behold another wild scene of Nature's works. At six o'clock we arrive in Ogden, and after tea we take the cars by the branch road, which is thirty-six and a half miles long, built by the Mormons, and arrive in Salt Lake City at eight o'clock. The fare on this branch line from Ogden and return is five dollars. We put up in the Townsen Hotel; board four dollars per day in gold for each person.

September 17th.—Salt Lake is situated on a broad plateau, about twenty miles in width, bounded on two sides by a chain of high mountains. This plain is divided by a small river running directly through its centre, called the Jordan, a beautiful stream, which in its

general appearance resembles the river of the same name in Palestine. The city proper is situated directly west of and at the base of a chain of high mountains, which loom up over eleven thousand feet, whose summit is about ten miles distant, and is covered with perpetual snow. The city is very prettily laid out with straight streets one hundred and twenty-five feet in width, intersecting at right angles, with wide sidewalks, and rows of large ornamental shade-trees planted on each side. The gutters in all the principal streets are filled with streams of pure running water, conducted through canals from the snowy mountains for the purpose of irrigating the land; and as the water leaves the gutters it finds its way to and over the farming-lands in the rear of the city. During the summer and autumn months they have no rainfall, and, if it were not for this system of irrigation, the land would not produce crops. Where the lands have been watered by this artificial method, the crops are all very heavy; but, where the land has not been watered, the soil is seemingly dead. Salt Lake City contains about thirty thousand inhabitants, but the entire settlements of the Mormons in Utah, which extend up and down the valleys for nearly four hundred miles, contain in all over two hundred and fifty thousand souls, and are rapidly increasing, for they are extending railroads, and building up towns and cities, in every direction.

It was in the year 1847 that less than five hundred Mormons, having traveled through a thousand miles of an uninhabited Indian country, settled in the valley of

Salt Lake. They were very poor, and it is probable that the extent of the sufferings and sacrifices made by the Mormons to reach this remote valley will never be known but to those who endured them; and since they have been in this valley they have encountered many fearful vicissitudes. In 1857 they were molested by the troops of the United States Government on account of polyg-



SALT LAKE VALLEY.

amy; in order to defend themselves, they built a rough stone-wall round the city, but at length, finding that they could not ward off the invading army, and before it reached the city, they packed up their goods, taking their women and children, and went down into the southern part of Utah, where they remained until the following spring. On their return they found that the army had

departed without doing any material damage to the city, and left a large amount of stores, together with a great number of wagons, which were afterward bought by the Mormons for a merely nominal sum. Instead of this invasion being a damage to the Mormons, in the end it was of great benefit. It is reported that this movement against the Mormons cost the United States Government nearly three million dollars. When the city of Salt Lake was first settled, the principal material used was sundried brick, giving it in that respect the appearance of a Spanish town, but the better class of buildings is now being constructed of cut stone in the most modern style; others are built of wood. The great Tabernacle, which is said to seat fourteen thousand people, is the first object for strangers to see. The building is oblong in shape, having a length of two hundred and fifty feet by one hundred and fifty in width. The roof is supported by forty-six columns of cut sandstone; from these stone pillars the roof springs, forming an unbroken arch, one of the largest self-sustaining roofs on the continent. They have also in course of erection a fine Mormon Temple of cut stone, which, when finished, it is said will cost two million dollars. President Young is now constructing a handsome palace, which will be one of the finest frame houses in America. The Mormons also have a theatre which will seat some thousands of people, and many other large buildings of a public character.

The people are governed by President Young, who is assisted by the twelve apostles. Their form of government is plain and simple, and seemingly works well.

The people are said to be quiet and law-abiding. When a person is arrested for a crime, he is immediately taken before the provost-marshal and tried at once; if found guilty, a fine is inflicted; if he is unable to pay, a ball and chain are attached to his leg, and he is put at work on the public streets to satisfy the penalty. The administration of government is conducted strictly upon the principle of economy; and, instead of their municipal tax, as in some other cities, being from four to five per cent., it is less than one.

September 18th.—This forenoon we take a ride to the warm sulphur springs, and also to the military encampment. Before leaving the city we called upon President Young, who gave us a cordial reception. He is a large, portly gentleman, of over seventy years, but looks young for that age. He was very pleasant, and conversed freely upon the general topics of the day.

It is said that President Young has taken a prominent part in all public improvements, in every plan calculated to facilitate communication between the Territory and the Eastern States, assisting in forming several express companies and stage-lines. He built several hundred miles of the Western Union Telegraph, graded one hundred and fifty miles of the Union Pacific Railroad, and has ever offered his assistance to every enterprise having any bearing on the interest of Utah. He also used every effort to push forward to an early completion the Utah Central Railroad, of which he was the first president. His great influence over his people is strongly illustrated by the promptness with which they respond to his call

in every emergency. If it were not for polygamy, which they claim to be the vital part of their religion, they would be as fine a race as we have, for they are a sober, cleanly, and hard-working people.

We take our departure from Salt Lake City by the three-o'clock train, and arrive at Ogden at five, where we make a change of cars, and resume our tour *en route* for San Francisco.

September 19th.—Sabbath. This morning we breakfast at Elko. A good meal can be had on any part of the road for one dollar currency or seventy-five cents coin; the cars stop for thirty minutes at all the regular eating-stations. We dine at Battle Mountain, and take supper at Humboldt. This station is situated on the edge of the great Nevada Desert, and it would be worth the while of any tourist who wishes to examine the wonders of Nature to stop here and remain for a few days.

September 20th.—This morning we pass what is called Cape Horn, which is one of the wildest and grandest scenes on the American Continent. The cars stopped for twenty minutes to give time to the passengers to examine and gaze upon the wonderful works of Nature. Timid people will draw back with a shudder, one look into this fearful chasm being sufficient to unsettle their nerves. On our right the mountain-range towers up above the clouds, while on the left is a ravine over a thousand feet in depth. In a short time after leaving this scene of natural beauty, we arrive at Colfax, where we stop and take breakfast. All through this section can be seen where the gold-diggers have been at work by the evidence

of the soil having been thrown over, and there are now some engaged taking out the precious metal. We can see occasionally small towns of huts or cabins inhabited by those in search of gold, with their families, but we do



REMNANT OF A TRIBE.

not see as many children running about the grounds as in Salt Lake City. In a short time after leaving Colfax we come to Sacramento, the capital of California.

Sacramento a few years ago was a small and unimportant hamlet, but it has emerged into a thriving, bustling city, containing a population of twenty-five thousand. The ground upon which the city is located is low, and the younger town was swept away by the overflow of the river of the same name. To guard against a recurrence of this evil, they raised the bed of the city

above the highest known flood, and built a more substantial style of residences. We proceed on our way, and dine at Lathrop. At half-past five o'clock we arrive in the city of San Francisco, and take up quarters in the Occidental Hotel; board three dollars per day each in gold.

CHAPTER II.

CALIFORNIA.

September 21st.—Finally, here we are, on the golden shore of California. We have traveled over one of the longest roads in the world, from the far East to the far West; from the Atlantic to the Pacific; from where the sun rises out of the waters to where it sets in the waters. The city of San Francisco presents a picturesque and yet broken appearance, owing to a portion being built on the hills, which attain a considerable altitude. From the tops of these hills a fine view of the town can be obtained. The city proper is located upon a narrow peninsula, which separates the bay of San Francisco from the Pacific Ocean. As the city continues to increase in size it extends back from the bay, takes in and covers over several high hills, among which is Prospect Hill, three hundred feet high; Russian Hill, three hundred and sixty feet; Clay Hill, nearly four hundred feet; and Lone Mountain, which is twelve hundred feet—through all of which the streets are being rapidly extended. The dirt taken from these hills is removed to the water-front and used for filling in the bay, with which hundreds of acres have been reclaimed. As soon as the new-made ground is raised above water, store-houses are built for the use of commerce.

The city was principally settled by Americans in the year 1849, who emigrated from Eastern and Western States in search of gold, and, in consequence of the great desire for wealth, there was but little attention paid to building up the city until several years later; and that part constructed by the pioneers has long since been swept away, and more substantial and commodious buildings have been erected. The new houses are of brick, cemented on the outside, giving them the appearance of stone; others are built of stone. In consequence of the frequent earthquakes to which the city is subject, the inhabitants find it unsafe to run their buildings up as high as those in Eastern cities, lest they should be shaken down by the elements.

The harbor of San Francisco is one of the finest and most commodious in America, if not in the world. Its entrance is through the Golden Gate, which is one and a half mile in width and about three miles inland from the ocean, where the bay is entered, and in front of which the city of San Francisco is located. This spacious bay is sixty miles long, varying from four to nineteen miles in width, with a depth of water capable of floating the largest ships; there is a great number of vessels of all nationalities in this port. Regular lines of steamers connect San Francisco with Japan, China, and all points on the northern and southern Pacific coast, while steamboats and railroads connect with all the important inland towns and cities.

When the ship-canal which is in contemplation shall have been constructed across the isthmus of Central

America, together with the great Union and Central Pacific Railroads, and other connecting links which are already projected, with a rich and fertile soil, and the mineral resources of the Pacific coast more fully devel-



SAN FRANCISCO.

oped, San Francisco is destined to become a great commercial emporium of North America, second only to New York in magnitude.

The city of San Francisco claims to have a population of two hundred and seventy thousand souls, consisting of all nationalities; and, should she continue to increase in the future in the same ratio as in the past, doubtless her numbers will soon exceed the present

population of the city of New York. The suburbs are rapidly increasing. Oakland, on the opposite side of the bay from San Francisco, has grown within a few years from a small hamlet to be a city of considerable magnitude. Many of the business-men of San Francisco make Oakland their place of residence. The people of the town claim that, for that purpose, it far surpasses San Francisco. Its genial climate, its delightful scenery, its smooth macadamized streets, shaded with evergreen foliage, and its superb drives and beautiful gardens, have induced many people of wealth to settle in Oakland City.

California is the finest fruit-growing country in which I have been. Peaches, pears, plums, figs, and grapes, grow in perfection. Some of this fine fruit is transported to New York and other Eastern markets; but the distance over rail is too far to send fruit, for it loses its flavor before coming into use. Grapes are extensively cultivated in all parts of the State, and the wine made from the most suitable grapes is said to be quite as good as that imported from foreign countries.

The climate of San Francisco is rather peculiar. In the forenoon the town has a dingy appearance, having strong indications of a rainy day; about ten o'clock it clears up with bright sunshine, and in the afternoon the effect of the cool breeze is felt from off the ocean. There are only ten degrees difference in the temperature between summer and winter. When I was here, during the summer of 1869, it seemed novel to see ladies promenade the streets of San Francisco in the month of July,

dressed in furs, and gentlemen in overcoats, such as we would consider to be winter clothing.

September 22d.—To-day we cross over the bay of San Francisco to the city of Oakland, and visit Mr. Mark Winant and family, formerly of Staten Island, who receive us cordially. What Brooklyn is to New York City, Oakland is to the city of San Francisco. The town derived its name from being built in a forest of ever-green oaks, with orchards of fruit-trees, parks, gardens, and vineyards, on every side. Amid this forest of perpetual green can be seen, peeping out here and there, the substantial residence of the wealthy merchant, the magnificent villa of the nabob, and the neat and tasteful cottage of the well-to-do mechanic, who have been attracted here by its grand scenery, mild climate, and quiet surroundings, being free from the dust, noise, and bustle, of a large city. It is supplied with gas and water, and two daily newspapers. Churches and schools are more numerous in Oakland, according to its population, than in San Francisco. The city has a population of fifteen thousand, and is rapidly increasing.

September 23d.—To-day we take a ride out to the cemetery and suburbs.

September 24th.—This afternoon we hire a carriage and ride out to the Seal-Rocks, a fashionable place of resort, which are six miles out. A good macadamized road leads from the city over a succession of sand-hills; from the summit of some of these hills we occasionally catch a glimpse of the ocean and bay in the distance; as we pass over the summit of the farthest and highest of

these hills, almost at our feet the great Pacific Ocean, in all its mystery and majesty, opens before us. On our right, in the distance, can be seen the Golden Gate, which is open to ships of all nations. Some three hundred yards from the land two rugged rocks rise abruptly out of the sea, to the height of about seventy-five feet, forming an area of perhaps an acre each, literally covered with seals and sea-lions; the seals were of the size of a Newfoundland dog, but the sea-lions much larger, and their noise resembled that of the bark of a dog; they are seemingly tame, and are protected by the laws of the State. They cling to the rocks as tenaciously as if they had been in possession for thousands of years. They often come in conflict, struggling for the higher places, and engage in loud disputation, unlike any controversy which I have ever heard before; their fierce growls and barks could be heard for miles. I doubt if there is another such scene to be witnessed anywhere in the world.

September 25th.—We take a ride out to the North Beach, where many visitors go daily, to enjoy the sea-breeze.

September 26th.—Sabbath. Both morning and evening we attended the Methodist Church.

September 27th.—We proposed to visit the Yosemite Valley, and should have done so, but were dissuaded by those who had been there declaring that it was as much of a tour of toil as of pleasure, unless one could remain in the valley for several weeks, allowing sufficient time for rest and meditation. The tour is partly made by

rail, and partly by stage, over rough, broken, and dusty roads.

September 28th.—To-day I attended the noon prayer-meeting, modeled after the Fulton Street meeting in New York City. After having the pleasure of speaking a few words in behalf of the Master's cause, at the close of the meeting, the little band of Christians, both brothers and sisters, hovered around, greeting me by shaking of hands, and inviting me to call in again, and assist them in their work.

September 29th.—This afternoon we ride out to Woodward Gardens, which are adorned with a variety of trees and flowers, selected from all parts of the world. In the gallery are some rare paintings and statuary; in the zoölogical department is a great variety of wild animals, including the California lion, and a grizzly bear weighing sixteen hundred pounds; also a number of California birds.

September 30th.—We continue rambling over the city, sight-seeing, and ascend Telegraph Hill, whence we obtain a beautiful view both of the city and shipping in the harbor. There are many profitable tours that could be made over California, which would require many months to accomplish.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE PACIFIC.

October 1st.—To-day, at twelve o'clock, we embark on board the steamship *Alaska en route* for Japan; distance five thousand and fifty miles, fare two hundred and fifty dollars apiece. We have in company thirty-five first-class passengers, and six hundred and fifty Chinamen in the steerage. This is conceded to be the longest sea-voyage in the world without coming in sight of land. The *Alaska* is one of the first ships of the fleet to which she belongs. She measures forty-one hundred tons, three hundred and seventy feet in length, forty feet breadth of beam, and thirty-one feet depth of hold. Her cylinder is one hundred and five inches, with twelve feet stroke, and she burns about fifty tons of coal in every twenty-four hours. She is registered to carry fourteen hundred passengers.

The *Alaska* carries a crew of one hundred and thirty-five men, including officers, sailors, servants, and waiters. The sailors and waiters are all Chinese, but they are admirably trained in their several duties, perfectly quiet, and ready at every call and for every emergency. We find Captain Howard a gentlemanly, polite officer, not only looking well to his ship, but attending as well to the comfort and pleasure of his passengers, which cannot be

said of all captains on the sea. Captain Howard combines humanity with stern discipline. Each morning and evening he inspects every part of the ship from stem to stern, with the keenest eye, to see that everything is going on right.

After passing through the Golden Gate of California, which always excites some interest, occasionally we become acquainted with the passengers. We find on board the Rev. Mr. McKibben and wife, of Ohio, missionaries to China; and four young ladies, all missionaries, some on their first voyage, others returning to spheres of honored labor. We also have in company Mr. Esendecker, German consul for Yeddo, Japan; Mr. Fowler, of the House of Commons, England; and Mr. and Mrs. Rummels, of Boston, who intend making the circuit of the globe; and many others of some note. It took us some two or three days to get used to the sea, and to one another, and to learn each other's histories. It is wonderful what an amount of information, both good and bad, in regard to one another, we do gather up in the course of a few days. Little groups began to form and pass occasionally hours on deck, or in the upper saloon, some playing at cards and other games, but I heard not as many sacred songs, and "Home, Sweet Home," sung, as on some other long voyages; but before reaching port they were all as sociable as one family.

October 2d.—Weather clear, wind west; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 29\frac{1}{2}'$ north, longitude $125^{\circ} 34'$ west. Ship ran from noon, yesterday, to 12 M. to-day, one hundred and sixty miles. Thermometer 64° .

October 3d.—Sabbath. This forenoon divine service was administered by the Rev. Mr. McKibben. Weather clear, wind blowing a good breeze from the west; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 21'$ north, longitude $129^{\circ} 12'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy six miles. Thermometer 66° .

October 4th.—Weather clear, wind south; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 21\frac{1}{2}'$ north, longitude $132^{\circ} 54'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-six miles. Thermometer 70° .

Yesterday we were informed that to-day we should meet the homeward-bound steamer, as both would be sailing on the same parallel of latitude; accordingly we had a large number of letters written to surprise friends at home. The letters were duly mailed, postage paid, etc., and all day we were eagerly on the lookout for the steamer, but the ship never made her appearance.

October 5th.—Weather clear, wind blowing hard from the south; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 32'$ north, longitude $136^{\circ} 19'$ west. Thermometer 60° . Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and sixty-three miles.

October 6th.—Weather clear, wind blowing hard from the south, accompanied by a heavy sea; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 23'$ north, longitude $139^{\circ} 18'$ west. Distance run, to 12 m., one hundred and forty-two miles. Thermometer 65° .

October 7th.—Wind fresh from the south; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 21'$ north, longitude $142^{\circ} 37'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and fifty-eight miles. Thermometer 68° .

October 8th.—Weather overcast and rainy, wind west; course west-southwest; latitude $37^{\circ} 10'$ north, longitude $146^{\circ} 8'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and sixty miles. Thermometer 50° .

October 9th.—Weather clear, wind blowing hard from the west; course west-southwest; latitude $36^{\circ} 59'$ north, longitude $149^{\circ} 25'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and fifty-seven miles. Thermometer 56° .

October 10th.—Sabbath. This forenoon we have divine service administered by the Rev. Mr. McKibben. Weather clear, wind blowing hard from the west; course west-southwest; latitude $36^{\circ} 48'$ north, longitude $152^{\circ} 9'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and forty-eight miles. Thermometer 65° .

October 11th.—Weather stormy, and blowing a gale from the southwest; sea very high; course west-southwest; latitude $35^{\circ} 33'$ north, longitude $155^{\circ} 8'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and twenty-eight miles. Thermometer 65° .

October 12th.—Weather clear, wind blowing a gale from the southwest, accompanied by a heavy cross-sea; course west-southwest; latitude $35^{\circ} 11'$ north, longitude $157^{\circ} 33'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and ten miles. Thermometer 62° .

October 13th.—Weather clear, with continuation of the southwest gale; heavy sea running, and ship laboring hard; latitude $35^{\circ} 13'$ north, longitude $159^{\circ} 13'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and six miles. Thermometer 65° . Course west-southwest.

October 14th.—Weather clear, wind southwest; the

gale is so violent and the sea so high, that the topsail-yards and light spars are lowered on deck, to relieve the ship from laboring so hard in making head against the gale and heavy sea. Thermometer 64° . Latitude $34^{\circ} 25'$ north, longitude $161^{\circ} 36'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and twenty-seven miles. Course west-southwest.

October 15th.—Weather clear. The southwest gale, which has been blowing so fearfully for the last ninety hours, is gradually subsiding. Course west-southwest; latitude $33^{\circ} 25'$ north, longitude $163^{\circ} 25'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and thirty miles. Thermometer 70° . The sailors have been engaged all day sending aloft the ship's topsail-yards, which were brought on deck yesterday.

October 16th.—Weather clear. Thermometer 70° . Wind fresh from the southwest; course west-southwest; latitude $33^{\circ} 7'$ north, longitude $166^{\circ} 53'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and forty-nine miles.

October 17th.—Sabbath. We have divine service on board, administered in the Episcopal form, by Mr. Fowler, a member of the English House of Commons, and preaching by the Rev. Mr. McKibben. Weather clear. Thermometer 72° . Wind fresh from the southwest; course west-southwest; latitude $32^{\circ} 27'$ north, longitude $169^{\circ} 31'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and forty-two miles.

October 18th.—Weather clear, and wind southwest, with a heavy cross-sea. Thermometer 80° . Course west-southwest; latitude $31^{\circ} 04'$ north, longitude $172^{\circ} 55'$

west. Distance run, up to 12 M., one hundred and seventy-five miles.

October 19th.—Weather clear, and wind fresh from the southwest. Thermometer 80° . Course west-southwest; latitude $30^{\circ} 51'$ north, longitude $176^{\circ} 5'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 M., one hundred and sixty-nine miles.

October 20th.—Weather clear, and wind fresh from the southwest; course west-southwest. Thermometer 71° . Latitude $30^{\circ} 51'$ north, longitude $179^{\circ} 29'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 M., one hundred and seventy-six miles.

October 22d.—To-day we passed through an experience that I never expect to verify again, and novel to most of the passengers, which occurs only on the Pacific Ocean. It was dropping a day out of the calendar. We retired to our beds as usual, and fell asleep on Wednesday night, the 20th; when we awoke the next morning we found, by the ship's log, that it was Friday, the 22d. We were not without warning of this strange coincidence, for it had been a matter of speculation for several days before, when we should pass over the one hundred and eightieth degree of longitude. If we had crossed the meridian two days later, a Sunday would have been blotted out as though we had not lived it.

Every one should know that, in traveling around the world from east to west, a day is absolutely lost from the calendar. If it were possible for one to go around the world in twenty-four hours, and retain the same relative position to the sun, he would travel with the

sun, and there would be no loss or gain of time ; but, by traveling more leisurely westward, a certain amount of time is added to each day, which, in making the entire circuit of the earth, causes a loss of one day from the calendar at some point in the journey, as if we had not lived it, virtually leaving but three hundred and sixty-four days in the year.

The question arose, "Where shall the change of time be made in dropping the day?" Navigators have answered this question by making the change on the one hundred and eightieth degree of longitude west, or east from Greenwich or London, which is practically the same thing. When they reach this meridian sailing westward, they drop a day, and when they reach it sailing eastward they gain a day. There is no other point or line on the world's surface so favorable for making the change in reckoning, for dropping or adding a day, as that point which has been taken by the English and American navigators, the one hundred and eightieth degree of longitude. This line falls in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, where there are no inhabitants to be affected by the change, excepting on some scattered islands. For instance, according to the true method of time, while Saturday is kept on the one side of the meridian line of one hundred and eighty degrees longitude upon the scattered islands, Sunday is observed on the other side ; and dropping a day from the calendar brought us in harmony with the time kept in Japan, England, and New York.

Our life on the Pacific is somewhat monotonous. Not

a sail of any kind has been seen since leaving the Golden Gate of California, except that on the first day out we saw two vessels going into port. But flocks of strange birds, with wings at least four feet from tip to tip, followed us for several days, picking up the crumbs thrown from the table, at last giving up the chase.

Our meals were served with the utmost regularity, and all the waiters were Chinese boys, quick of perception, cheerful in their services, and quiet as lambs. Those who turn out early in the morning can get coffee from seven to eight o'clock; at nine a substantial breakfast is served, lunch at one, dinner at six, and tea at eight; but, with the thermometer from 70° to 80° , it is pretty hard to respond to all the calls of the gong. To-day the weather is clear, and wind fresh from the southwest. Thermometer 82° . Course west-southwest; latitude $30^{\circ} 8'$ north, longitude $176^{\circ} 29'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and nine miles.

October 23d.—Weather clear, and wind fresh from the southwest. Thermometer 82° . Course west-southwest; latitude $30^{\circ} 12'$ north, longitude $172^{\circ} 35'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and three miles.

October 24th.—Weather stormy, and wind blowing a gale from the southwest, accompanied by thunder and lightning, and heavy sea running. Thermometer 80° . Course west-southwest; latitude $30^{\circ} 22'$ north, longitude $168^{\circ} 13'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and ninety-two miles. This being the Sabbath, we had preaching by the Rev. Mr. McKibben.

October 25th.—Weather clear, and the wind blowing

hard from the west. Thermometer 79° . Course west-southwest; latitude $29^{\circ} 51'$ north, longitude $165^{\circ} 58'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and fifty-four miles.

October 26th.—Weather clear, and wind blowing hard from the northwest. Thermometer 80° . Course west-southwest; latitude $29^{\circ} 47'$ north, longitude $161^{\circ} 57'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and ten miles.

October 27th.—Weather clear, and wind blowing hard from the southeast. Thermometer 84° . Latitude $29^{\circ} 54'$ north, longitude $157^{\circ} 29'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and thirty-three miles.

October 28th.—Weather clear, and the wind blowing hard from the west, with heavy sea. Thermometer 81° . Latitude $30^{\circ} 30'$ north, longitude $153^{\circ} 49'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and ninety-three miles.

October 29th.—Weather clear, and wind fresh from the southwest. Thermometer 82° . Course west-southwest; latitude $31^{\circ} 14'$ north, longitude $150^{\circ} 12'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and ninety one miles.

October 30th.—Weather clear, wind west-by-north and fresh, with moderate sea. Thermometer 80° . Course west-southwest; latitude $32^{\circ} 28'$ north, longitude $145^{\circ} 5'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and twenty-nine miles.

October 31st.—Weather clear, and the wind blowing a gale from the northwest, with heavy sea. Thermome-

ter 74° . Course northwest; latitude $33^{\circ} 54'$ north, longitude $141^{\circ} 43'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and thirty-six miles.

November 1st.—In consequence of adverse winds and heavy weather, we have been thirty-one days making the passage across the North Pacific, while an ordinary passage is only twenty-two days. But I have been at sea when the sight of land was far more welcome, for this voyage was upon a summer sea, and under sunny skies nearly all the way, and the time has passed pleasantly on ship-board. As a rule, ships in crossing over the North Pacific Ocean do not run as fast as those crossing the Atlantic; but the economy of coal for a voyage of five thousand miles is a serious consideration, when at least some thirteen hundred tons have to be provided for the voyage, and, if by any accident or detention the supply should run short, there is no intermediate coaling-station at which we could stop on this vast expanse of water, upon which we never caught sight of a sail, or craft of any description, after we got clear of the coast of California, and the engine never stopped, nor lost a single revolution, for the space of thirty-one days.

The Pacific sea promised, when leaving San Francisco, that we should have a quick and smooth passage; learned doctors of divinity, and American and English statesmen, indorsed the assurance that the passage would be made in less than twenty-two days; that after we got through and away from the Golden Gate of California we should have the Pacific all serene. We did get clear of the Gate and across the bar in the most pacific way,

and for one or two days all was gentle and mild; but, for the next twenty-eight days, we had a succession of crops of white foam, and our noble ship, the *Alaska*, was oftener on her beam-ends than on her keel.

As we approached the coast of Japan, we ran through a school of whales, playfully disporting themselves in the waters; soon after we were entering the harbor of Yokohama, the principal port of Japan, in which vessels of all nations, both men-of-war and merchantmen, were anchored in the bay. The Stars-and-Stripes were floating to the breeze, from the mastheads of a number of ships. The firing of the ship's gun, and the dropping of the anchor, brought around us a number of boats, all propelled with sculls by the natives, both men and women; some of them were loaded with people looking after friends on board, and others came to take on shore the passengers. The excitement and confusion were so great that we were at a loss to know what boat to take; but, at length, the proprietor or runner of the Grand Hotel solicited our company, when we piled in our luggage and took passage for the shore—about three hundred yards distant from the ship—for which he charged two dollars a passenger for about ten minutes' work. We were afterward informed that the regular fare was only ten cents a passenger. After our luggage had been examined by the custom-house officials, we made our way to the Grand Hotel, and, looking at the rooms which we proposed to occupy, we were informed that the board was six dollars a day for each person. I said to Mr. Smith, the proprietor of the house, that we

had no fault to find with the rooms selected, but that we were from a land of civilization, and expected to pay full value for whatever we received, but, thinking that his fare was entirely too high, and that we should take up our abode in the International Hotel, only a few rods farther west, and equally as good if not a better house, we accordingly made a movement to leave, when he offered to take us for three dollars per day, which is the ordinary price in all the first-class houses in Yokohama.

CHAPTER IV.

EXCURSIONS IN JAPAN.

November 2d.—Yokohama is divided into three parts. The commercial district—where we landed—was built, and is occupied principally, by English merchants. There are no wharves, but a wide street extending over a mile along the water, on the shore-side of which the foreign merchants have their bungalows and offices; some of these have fine gardens, surrounded with walls, and the yards ornamented with Oriental shrubbery and flowers. The high bluffs to the left form another section of the city, where many of the merchants reside. From this beautiful elevation a fine view of the city and harbor is obtained. The Oriental section is more in the background, where the Japanese as a people keep to themselves, and seem to be quiet and inoffensive.

November 3d.—This morning early, in company with Mr. and Mrs. Runnels, and Mr. Otto, we leave by the cars for Yeddo, distance twenty-four miles, fare one dollar. This railroad was built as an experiment by an English company for the Japanese, and was the first road operated in the empire. On reaching Yeddo, each one of our party was mounted in a small vehicle called *gin-riki-sha*, in which there is only room for one person, and is drawn by a coolie, who could make as good time

over the smooth streets as a pony. We also procured a guide who had been trained for the route, and who spoke English sufficient to be understood. We at first drove to see the American minister, who has his residence in the city of Yeddo, and who furnished us with such passes as we required to go over the city and visit the institutions.

The city of Tokio, formerly Yeddo, is some nine miles long and eight miles wide. About one-eighth of the city's area is occupied by canals and the moats of the castle. The city fronts on a large and spacious bay of the same name, but the water is too shallow to admit the largest ships, and those engaged in foreign trade found that they could do business better in Yokohama, at which place their cargoes are discharged on lighters and taken to Tokio. The castle is in the centre of the city. We rode around its walls. It consists of a central citadel, and a large area of land, within strong earthen embankments planted with trees and faced with heavy stone-walls, over fifty feet in height, and built in a manner well fitted to resist earthquakes and land-slides, to which the country is subjected.

There are a great number of temples in the city, belonging chiefly to the numerous Buddhist sects. The two principal religions of Japan are the Buddhist and the Shinto (doctrine of the gods). The former is the popular, and the latter appears to be the official religion. There are also a great number of Buddhist monasteries, and a few nunneries, in the city. The population of Tokio, or Yeddo, is reported to be over one million souls.

It will be remembered that Yeddo was founded by Iyeyasu, the first shogun of the Tokugawa line. While Yeddo was the shogun's, Kioto was the mikado's capital. The last shogun abdicated in 1857, at which time the office was abolished, and the name of Yeddo passed away with that of shogun, the designation of the city being changed to Tokio, or Eastern Capital. The mikado, or emperor, took up his residence in it, and it is now the capital of the empire.

We, in our *gin-riki-shas*, were drawn from temple to temple with great rapidity. We paid the coolies well, occasionally giving them a little backshish to keep up their courage. The temples of Tokio tower above all the other buildings of the city. The houses and shops are all built low, only from one to two stories, so that they may not have far to fall in case of earthquakes, which are frequent. The first temple that we entered was from fifty to sixty feet high. The architecture was purely Oriental and imposing, and the interior far more beautiful and in better taste than I expected to find it, from the weather-beaten appearance of the exterior. We next drove to Atangoreama, which is located in the centre of the city upon a high bluff, reached by a long flight of stone steps, about one hundred in all. From this bluff we obtained a fine view of the city, and overlooked the castle or palace of the tycoon. The castle stands upon high ground, strongly fortified, with walled terraces and deep, wide moats, seemingly almost impregnable to any attack; and a drive along the castle-walls, and moats filled with water, is one of the great attractions of Tokio.

We also visited Stago Yama, another elevated spot, whence we obtained a magnificent view of the shipping in the harbor, and the tops of the temples. The summit of this mount is reached by two flights of steps—one to the right for gentlemen, and one to the left for ladies. The mount is adorned with large shade-trees, from appearance a hundred years old. This city originally was built on a plain, and these high mounds, looming up over every other object, are artificial, the earth having been brought into the city by hand-labor, and raised up to beautify the place.

Yeddo, or Tokio, is not an ancient city. Its site became historic when Yamato Dake, in the second century of our era, marched to conquer the eastern tribes. In later times the Mimamonto chieftains subdued the plains of the Kuanto, and, until the twelfth century, the region around the bay of Yeddo was wild, uncivilized, and with few inhabitants.

This being the mikado's birthday, there was a great display of flags; every house and store was decorated, music was heard in every part of the city, and in all the temples they were praying to their gods—that is, if beating on drums, to awaken the spirits of those whom they propose to worship, can be called praying; others came from behind a curtain and engaged in what is called the sacred dance, cutting up all kinds of antics; and yet, in the way it was performed, it seemed solemn and devout.

We visited the Asakusa Temple, which is the most popular in Tokio, if not the most celebrated in Japan.

The approach to this temple is through an avenue lined on both sides with a great variety of toy-shops and booths, filled with all sorts of gay ornaments for sale. Behind these booths are small shrines and temples. At the end of the avenue is a large gate, through which we entered, when we came to a huge red building called the temple. We noticed in passing through the gate two colossal gods, or demons, in niches behind iron screens, who are the guardians of the gate: one is ever ready to welcome the man who repents and endeavors to reform; the other is pleased when children are born who will become good men. Entering the court-yard of the temple, flocks of pigeons are seen, for whose benefit women sell rice and peas in little earthen pots, which worshipers buy as an act of piety and cast to the sacred fowls. To the left, in a stall, is seen the albino pony, sacred to Kuanon, to whose honor the temple was built. The pony is also fed by pious contributions. Within the door of the temple is a large bronze incense-burner, on which are the twelve signs of the zodiac. In front of the large contribution-box, around the altar, several were kneeling in prayer to their gods; this altar is richly adorned with gilt images, and lighted. The ceilings and walls are covered with specimens of the sacred paintings of the Japanese Buddhistic art. Angels, gods, and heroes are represented, and numerous tablets are hung upon the walls.

There are a large number of subordinate temples, shrines, and images, within the temple-grounds; a pagoda, a hall of services, an octagon temple, with several

hundred small idols in it, many tea-booths, a curious rude theatre, and many other attractions to the stranger. We also saw many representations of animals, life-size, of all kinds, and very imperfect in construction—the most hideous-looking images I ever witnessed. In these temples they expect a fee for admission, which is left entirely to the generosity of the visitor.

The temple of the five hundred sages, or disciples of Buddha, is most interesting. On entering the first building we saw on the floor, near the main entrance, an image having three eyes, horns in the back, long hair like a woman's, and hoofs like a horse. In the second building, from a floor of earth rises a colossal throne of water-worn bowlders of volcanic rock, and masses of lava, on which stands a large gilt image of Buddha, the founder of their religion. On one side of him appears the representation of an elephant, and on the other that of a lion; on his right stands Kasha, his best disciple, who collected all the discourses and remembered sayings of his master, and formed the original Buddhist canon. On his left stands Anan, who was gifted with a wonderful memory: he remembered all that his master said and taught. The number of original disciples of Buddha was sixteen; and these five hundred were later converts, who devoted themselves to the priesthood and became missionaries, and who propagated Buddhism in the upper provinces. Most of them are portrayed in attitudes of meditation, some purifying their bodies. All have shaven heads and priestly robes, and some are adorned with their symbols of office—staff, scroll, keys,

etc. Immediately inside the railing, to the left, is a dark-colored image of Ema, the lord and judge of hell.

November 4th.—On our return to Yokohama we devoted some time to visiting the Oriental shops where they have for sale many curiosities of their own handiwork, such as ivory toys, paintings on silk cloth, lacquerware, and many other small articles, all of which they are most eager to sell to strangers. Many of the shopkeepers in Yokohama can speak enough broken English to be understood, and those who cannot call in an interpreter.

The money in use among foreigners at Yokohama consists of Mexican and American trade-dollars and bank-notes. For small change the Japanese silver, paper, and copper currency is universally used. The Japanese coins and denominations are as follows, viz.: copper cash is the one-tenth part of a copper cent, or, as called here, *sen*; twenty-five sens make one *bu*, fifty sens make two *bu*, and one hundred sens four *bu*.

November 5th.—This morning early, in company with Mr. and Mrs. Runnels, and Mr. Otto, some of our shipmates, we start upon an excursion out into the interior of the country. We rode in small *gin-riki-shas*, drawn by two coolies. We took our cook and eatables with us, and were gone for two days and one night, passing through deep ravines, and over mountain-tops, dotted with towns and cities. Every foot of the land that could be worked was under the highest state of cultivation, one tier of rice and cotton fields rising above another, by a slight gradation, and farther up on the sides

of the mountains vegetation was seen in perfection. As we passed through the numerous villages, we were constantly greeted with the cry—from men, women, and children—"O-ha-yo?" meaning "How are you?" We stopped at Kamakura, which was formerly the political capital of Japan. Every spot of ground in and around



DAIBUTZ.

Kamakura is classic to the Japanese, and the great bulk of the vast store of the Japanese histories and historical romances have their chief scenes laid in or near Kamakura. The city is said to have contained at one period two hundred thousand houses, but very little remains to-day to attest its former greatness. Heavy forest-trees

now cover the ground upon which the ancient city stood, and where scores, if not hundreds, of battles have been fought, and streams of blood have flowed. The chief place of interest is the temple, which stands on a lofty plateau, reached by a high flight of stone steps; in front of the temple stands a canopy, used on festival occasions by musicians and sacred dancers. About one mile from Kamakura we enter the village of Hasemura, near which stands the famous bronze image of Buddha. The approach to it is through a very beautiful avenue, overhung with evergreens. This image is the largest in the world, being forty-four feet high and of good proportions. The material is said to be an alloy of copper, with a slight mixture of gold. We had the curiosity to go inside, where there are numerous gilt idols worshiped by the Japanese. On leaving this the greatest of all images, we soon approached the sea-shore, along which we were obliged to walk, through the deep sand, some two or three miles, to relieve our coolies, who by the day's journey were much fatigued. When we came to solid ground we again mounted our *gin-riki-shas*, and rode till we came to the village of Enoshima, where we stopped overnight. It was quite dark on our arrival in this ancient town, to which we had to ascend from the sandy shore, through a narrow street, over numerous stone steps, till we came to the inn, or what is commonly called a tea-house. When the inmates saw us coming up the steps, they ran out to welcome us, and on entering the upper chamber we were politely requested by the head of the house to pull off our boots, which is one of the

marked customs of the country. Everything was perfectly neat and clean, but there was not a particle of furniture in the rooms. During our sojourn they treated us with marked attention and cordiality, laughing, and in good-humor trying to entertain in the best possible way; and yet we could not speak a word of their language, but by the art of pantomime we managed to get what we required. When bedtime had arrived, quilts were spread upon the bare floor; we being fatigued by the day's journey, the night's repose was quite as comfortable as in a first-class hotel.

November 6th.—This morning we rose early, and after breakfast prepared by our cook, and paying our bills, we took a stroll over the island. We visited the fancy stores, and the numerous temples and shrines. Enoshima is only an island at high tide; at low water it is a peninsula. It is heavily timbered, and clothed with dense masses of evergreen foliage. There is a story to the effect that, in ancient times, there were five huge dragons living in the marshes of the island, and no man had the courage to approach them. Many people were devoured, and one rich man lost all his children, who were eaten by the monsters. After the power of the protecting goddess had sprung up on the island, the dragons ceased their ravages.

Passing over the high lands of the island, a beautiful view of the sea is obtained. As we follow the path, we come to a deep gorge in the rocks, and farther on pass shell-booths on either side; and in a short time we descend the high embankment upon the sea-shore and see

the cave, which only can be reached at a low stage of the tide.

On leaving the island we return by another road than that by which we came. The first village is Katase, inhabited by fishermen, and is not noted for cleanliness. It contains a Buddhist temple, and several small shrines,



FUSI YAMA.

for which the entire country is noted; they may be seen in the rice and cotton fields, and even along the roadside. We are now in close proximity to the great volcano Fusi Yama, the sacred mountain of fire, the pride and glory of Japan, which the Japanese, as by a sense of religious duty, put in every picture and on every article that they manufacture. Fusi Yama is not in

a state of eruption, but the volcano, looming up over fourteen thousand feet, can be seen at sea in a clear day nearly one hundred miles.

After leaving Katase we soon pass over a beautiful little river. Nearly all the streams in Japan have their source in the mountains, falling down gorges and steep inclines to the sea. At noon we stopped at Totsuka, where, according to arrangement, we met our coolies,



JAPANESE GIRLS.

who went in advance to make preparations for dinner, and had the table spread out. The tea-house in which we took lunch was clean, and the coolie girls in attendance rather pretty. Most of the country-houses are one story high, with straw-thatched roofs; they have open fronts, and for window-glass is substituted rice-paper. As we passed through the farming districts, we saw scores of the natives working in the rice and cotton fields as naked as when born. The women had on some cloth-

ing, but were bareheaded and barefooted. When working in the fields or shops they carry their babes in sacks, fastened by a strap on their backs.

In every city and hamlet through which we passed Buddhist temples or shrines may be seen, and in every temple are images, candles, bells, drums, books, and a variety of altar ornaments. In front of the temples are usually two huge red images—the one hates evil, and the other welcomes good. Sandals are often hung before them by devotees who are anxious to walk the strict path of virtue, or those having sore feet; these pious worshipers often fling balls of chewed paper at them: if the balls stick to the image the omen is good, and their prayers are answered. We occasionally, in some of the larger towns, see a Shinto temple, where devotees worship the Shinto gods, and live in fear and reverence of the memories of the dead.

Buddhism in Japan was introduced from India, through China and Corea, five hundred years after the Christian era, and in India six hundred years before Christ. They worship Buddha, and a host of deceased men, and pray to a vast number of saints; they believe in progressive states of future reward and punishment, and are influenced in their actions by the fears and hopes of the world to come.

Just before reaching Yokohama, but within its precincts, we passed by the execution-ground, where criminals are beheaded for murder, burglary, and often for smaller crimes. The grounds were large, and surrounded by a high fence, giving them a very gloomy appearance.

November 7th.—This being the Sabbath, the Rev. Mr. Ballagh, missionary, formerly of New Jersey, called to see me, with whom I attended the Reformed Church. The edifice is new and recently finished, neat in its construction, and will seat about four hundred. The natives keep no sabbath; but they have many sacred days and holidays on which they hold their religious festivals.

November 8th.—To-day I called on the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, who kindly showed me through the missionary buildings, and the new seminary erected for the native young ladies. This fine edifice is situated on the bluff overhanging the city of Yokohama, and affords a most beautiful and interesting panoramic view of the harbor, filled as it is with vessels of different nations and of every rig. This female seminary was built by American contributions, in which the Sabbath-school of Bergen Point, New Jersey, took an active part. The young ladies attending the seminary were dressed in English costume, neat and clean in appearance, and prove apt and quick in their studies. They are taught in their native language, and in the English if desired.

Missionaries in the treaty ports of Japan are doing a good and profitable work. Some of those sent out by the American and English boards are taken under the cognizance and into the pay of the Government, with the distinct understanding that they are at liberty to teach Bible truth in their schools.

CHAPTER V.

JAPAN.

November 9th.—Japan is a land of great beauty, and rich in fertility. The Government and its inhabitants are being rapidly transformed into an enlightened civilization, and all that has been told us recently of the empire is abundantly confirmed by observation and experience. The railway and the telegraph are teaching the people great lessons of social reform. The two-sworded warriors are scarcely to be seen in the streets as hitherto, and there is substituted for these blood-thirsty desperadoes an improved system of police.

There are a great many foreigners employed and doing business in the treaty ports of Japan, as engineers, surgeons, teachers, etc. Great Britain holds an enviable position in this category of officials, and British influence is made manifest in many ways. There are several newspapers printed in English, and to some extent the English language is spoken, but it is not known by the natives in the country towns. Until within the last few years, foreigners were not permitted to enter the precincts of Tokio without a military escort, but now all strangers have the liberty to visit and explore with the greatest degree of safety. We were drawn in the *gin-riki-shas*, and entered the great temple of Shiba, and the

tombs of the tycoons and their wives, and rode freely through and around the city, visiting all the principal temples and places of sacred dancing, without being molested. The mikado, unlike the exclusive and secluded emperors of many ages ago, mingles with the people, and holds converse with the representatives of foreign states, and numerous embassies and delegations are sent to Europe and America, all designed to collect such information as will promote the best interests of law and order.

The territory of Japan comprises four large islands and nearly four thousand smaller ones. There are seven grand divisions, which are subdivided into sixty-eight provinces, and these again into smaller districts and towns. It has an area of one hundred and ninety thousand square miles, and a population of about thirty million. She was once in the far-off Orient, but is now our nearest Western neighbor. Her people walk our streets; her young men are being educated in our colleges; her art adorns our homes, and has opened to us a new field of commerce.

In Japan, for the last six hundred years, there have been both a civil and a religious ruler, although the latter was scarcely anything more than a nominal officer. The former, known under the name of tycoon, had the reins of government in his own hands; but the mikado was recognized as the religious head of the empire, and was superior in rank to the tycoon, and yet he had little to do with public affairs. In the year 1868 a revolution was inaugurated, and at length became successful, by which the power of the tycoon was overthrown, and he

was reduced to the position of a prince of the empire. The mikado was duly installed and recognized as supreme ruler. Under him he has two hundred and sixty daimios, of whom eighteen are the chiefs of the empire or feudal lords, with supreme authority in their own provinces, and having under their control thousands of retainers to do their fighting. Before the late change in the government the daimios were required to reside at the capital at least half the year, as hostages or pledges of their adherence to and support of the reigning power; but since the change they are allowed to reside in their own provinces.

The mikado, who is now the supreme and only acknowledged head of the government, formerly had his palace at Miako, the religious capital of the empire; but, since he has been acknowledged as emperor, he has taken up his residence at Tokio.

The Japanese are quick in apprehension, and willing to learn from others. They are decidedly ingenious, but are wanting in mental vigor as compared with the Chinese, their neighbors. They are, however, exceedingly polite and easy in all their intercourse. The people, even in the more retired country districts, have a certain grace, and are as affable in their manners, and as polite in their intercourse, as those who dwell in the cities.

In their shops and houses they are the pattern of neatness and good taste. One may walk for miles through their streets, looking into their dwellings and places of business, which are all open to the gaze of the public, and he will never tire in his admiration of the cleanli-

ness which prevails, and of the regard to the arrangement of their various articles offered for sale.

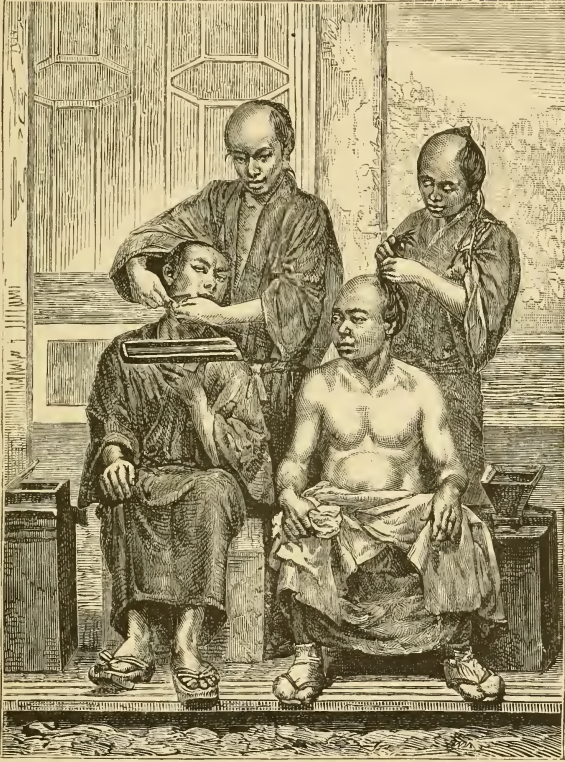
The dwellings are only from one to two stories in height, with open fronts. The first floor is commonly used for a shop, in which something is offered for sale. The little gardens in the rear attached to their dwellings or places of business are pretty, and as neat as their houses.

The Japanese generally have fine teeth, but when a woman marries she is compelled by the laws of society to dye her teeth black, and this process is renewed at least once a week. In city or country, wherever we go, we meet the grim smile of women who have fallen into the bonds of matrimony. What was the origin of this custom I do not know, unless it was to designate the married from the unmarried. There is nothing more distasteful than to see a person with black teeth.

The men in Japan shave their heads, making a bald spot upon the crown, which likens them to Jesuit priests, while they have a narrow circle of hair around the head. Both men and women shave the eyebrows off smooth, and have the hair carefully plucked out of the ears and nose. The barber is an important functionary, who does his work on the streets, where scores of both sexes may be seen daily sitting upon the sidewalks, having their heads shaved and hair trimmed.

The Japanese ladies are generally proud; the higher class go dressed in their silks of domestic make with their faces colored in a modest style; they wear no stockings, but have sandals of mat, and some have wooden

shoes. The men and women bear a similar expression, and can only be designated by their dress. They are



JAPANESE BARBERS.

small in stature, of a dark-bronze complexion, with small features, and are rather a pretty race of people.

Many of their customs are very opposite to those of

other nations. The carpenter, in using the plane, draws it toward him instead of pushing it. It is the same with the saw, which he draws when he wishes to cut. They have their horses and oxen shod with straw mats instead of iron, and the streets are strewed with cast-off sandals of the ponies.

In some of the arts the Japanese are in advance of all other nations. The porcelain of Japan, although it takes its name from the Celestial Empire, is rarely rivaled in China. The lacquer-ware is beyond comparison with the productions of any other country. They excel in working metals, especially in bronzes and in all inlaying work. They also have a great fondness for painting on silk, and drawing. Their books are profusely illustrated with plates highly colored.

CHAPTER VI.

INLAND SEA OF JAPAN AND YELLOW SEA OF CHINA.

November 10th.—This afternoon at four o'clock we take passage on board the American steamship *Golden Age*, Captain Furber, for Shanghai, China; distance twelve hundred miles, fare sixty-five dollars apiece. We have in company twenty-five first-class passengers. The *Golden Age* is of the capacity of two thousand tons, and a fine sea-going vessel. Shortly after the ship's anchor is weighed, steaming out the harbor, we get sight of flying-fish with their silver bodies and transparent wings, fleet as birds; some of them flew from one to two hundred feet before lighting. This kind of fish were not new to me, for I had often seen them in the Gulf of Mexico.

November 11th.—This forenoon we encountered heavy winds from the northwest and a rough sea, but later in the day, as we approached the numerous small islands, which make up the Inland Sea of Japan, the waters were perfectly clear, without a ripple upon their surface.

November 12th.—This morning, just at the break of day, we arrived in the port of Hiogo, where our ship remained at anchor for twenty-three hours, giving the passengers an opportunity of visiting the city. Hiogo is beautifully situated upon a spacious bay, with a background of high, picturesque mountains, and containing

one hundred and fifty thousand souls. There are several large English vessels at anchor waiting for cargoes of tea. Hiogo is one of the treaty ports. Osaka is fifteen miles distant, and is the site of the fortified castle of the tycoons, destroyed by fire in the late revolution. It is a city of great wealth, its silk-houses surpassing those of any other city in the empire. Our time being limited, we did not visit Osaka, but occupied ourselves in looking through the ancient city of Hiogo.

November 13th.—At five o'clock this morning I was aroused by the sound of the ship's gun, when the anchor was weighed, and we were soon after steaming through the beautiful Inland Sea. Nature seems to have done more for Japan than for any country in which I have been—its delightful climate, fishing-lakes, and diversified mountains, so richly clad with brushwood, occasionally dotted with towns and cities, constantly presenting to our gaze a perfect panoramic view. I have seen all the principal lakes in Scotland, Ireland, Switzerland, and America, but this surpasses each of them, and combines the best features all in one.

November 14th.—Sabbath. This morning early I was again aroused from slumber by the noise of the ship's gun resounding through the harbor, reverberating among the mountains which overlook the town, and when I went on deck, Captain Furber informed me that we were in the harbor of Shine Sacka, which is entirely landlocked by a high group of mountains formed by the islands of the sea. It was novel to see the natives come off and besiege the ship with their canoes, many of them having

oranges and a variety of other fruits for sale. In this section of Japan, upon the smaller islands, the land is rich in fertility, but the people are far behind the age in agricultural implements. The soil is all dug up with the hoe. I did not see a plough, shovel, nor spade, in the country. They have no barns nor out-houses in which to put their crops; the grain is thrashed out in the fields, and carried in baskets to their dwellings, in which it is stored.

At half-past ten o'clock we resume our voyage. We find a perfect panoramic view of over four hundred miles of the most delightful scenery of ever-charming and never-ending beauties. The weather is both clear and calm. The channel twists around and among the islands in all directions, so that the headlands which we pass seem as fleeting as the clouds, producing ever-varying scenery. During one hour we are making our way along under the deep shadow of some naked precipice looming up thousands of feet; in the next we are passing terraced hill-sides covered with flowery plains and fields, and forests, in which the bamboo, the tulip, and the cypress commingle. It seems as if the busy population of the whole empire has clustered on those romantic shores, and the fishing-boats may be numbered by thousands, filled with natives taking fish in great quantities.

November 15th.—About midnight I heard the sound of the ship's gun reëcho among the hills and valleys, which indicated our arrival in the port of Nagasaki. Early in the morning we went on shore and called on Mr. Mangum, the American consul, who kindly offered

his services to show us about the town, but we being accompanied by Dr. Painter, who had formerly lived here and could speak the language, declined, thanking him for his kind offer.

Nagasaki is very beautifully situated at the base of the mountains, sloping gradually down to the sea, and



NAGASAKI HARBOR.

containing a population of about one hundred thousand. Our ship stopped here part of two days, affording us an opportunity to visit the town and surroundings, which will rival in grandeur and diversified scenery any city that I have been in.

November 16th.—This morning, in company with Mr. ,

and Mrs. Runnels and Dr. Painter, we take a ramble over the city. Soon after leaving the English settlement, we find ourselves in the ancient town, which in character is purely Oriental, where we visit shop after shop looking at fancy articles, of which turtle-shell is one of the specialties. At twelve o'clock we hear the sound of the ship's gun to notify the passengers to be in readiness. We accordingly hasten on board, and in a few moments the anchor is weighed, and our noble ship steaming out of the harbor. We soon approach and pass by Takaboko Island, which is more like a huge rock looming out of the sea, and has a melancholy history. At the close of the sixteenth century, when the introduction of Christianity by the Jesuits excited the apprehension of the Japanese Government, and when the order was given to exterminate the foreign religion by a bloody persecution, many thousands of Christians fled to this island for a last refuge; they were pursued by the natives, and those who escaped the sword were driven into the sea and perished in the waters; and a large number of natives were afterward arrested and condemned to death or servitude for adherence to that faith.

Our stay in Japan of some two or three weeks was highly enjoyed by us. As we look back over its landscape, it is with regret that our stay could not have been prolonged, and no country will be remembered by us with more interest than Japan.

November 17th.—This morning we find ourselves in the Yellow Sea, out of sight of land. Weather clear; thermometer 71° ; wind fresh from the northwest; course

west. Here we meet the yellow-colored waters, some two hundred miles from land, which have their source from the Yang-tse-kiang River, one of the largest rivers of the East, and said to be thirty-five hundred miles in length, and navigable for large river-steamers for nearly one thousand, and for smaller class two thousand, miles. It is the constant washing away of its yellow clay-banks coloring the waters, ebbing to the ocean, which constitutes the Yellow Sea. Soon after leaving these yellow waters we enter Woosung River, on which Shanghai is situated, about twelve miles from its mouth. At the entrance we passed by a long range of earth-works—one of the Chinese forts—guarded by a large force of soldiers, and in front lie several English war-vessels, among which I saw two American men-of-war, for the protection of English and American commerce, and also a large fleet of Chinese war-junks, doubtless built after the model that was most approved over a thousand years ago.

At 2 P. M. we arrive in Shanghai; here we undergo an examination of our baggage by custom-house officials and then take quarters in the Central Hotel, board two dollars and a half per day.

CHAPTER VII.

SHANGHAI TO HONG-KONG.

November 18th.—Shanghai is one of the large seaport towns of China for the shipment of tea; it contains a population of three hundred thousand. The streets are narrow, and kept tolerably clean for an Oriental town literally filled with people. Here we see a different people, and hear a different dialect spoken, from those of Japan.

The recent events which have taken place in Japan and India have drawn public attention to the Chinese Empire more than ever before. Her neighbors, both Japan and India, are building and extending their railroads, to which China has been opposed. The changes now initiated by her close neighbors will compel China ere long to fall in with the demands of foreign powers, or else her rulers will gradually be driven away, and give place to others more in unison with the new order of things. There are, however, great vitality and self-support in her institutions, and in the peaceful industry of the mass of the Chinese people, and these features of their personal and national character furnish grounds of hope that they will adapt themselves to the march of improvement.

The Chinese census of 1839 gave a population of four hundred and fifteen million ; during the last twenty years, however, civil wars, famine, and pestilence, have probably reduced the population to about three hundred and seventy-five million. Even at this estimate it is nearly ten times that of the United States, and about one-third of the earth's inhabitants is found in this empire. The origin of the Chinese, from the best light we have, appears to be as follows : During the first century after the confounding of tongues, five or six nomadic tribes from the region southeast of the Caspian Sea made their way eastward, seeking out the best-watered and most productive places, and finally settled along the banks of the Yang-tse-kiang River, in the central and western portion of what is now the Chinese Empire. Therefore China has existed almost from the time of the confusion of tongues, and has had a consolidated government or nationality for nearly three thousand years. Other ancient nations, as the Assyrians, Babylonians, Egyptians, Persians, and Greeks, all rose and flourished for a time, but at length became extinct, and the mouldering ruins of their renowned cities alone tell of their former greatness. Later empires, as the Syrian and Roman, rose, had their period of prosperity and power, and long since fell into decay. But here stands China to-day, unmoved by the waves of time, existing through all the long ages, with her system of government, her laws, her arts, her habits and customs, unchanged. A wonderful nation that, thus to withstand the shock of repeated bloody revolutions, and changes of rulers, and

remain the same amid all national vicissitudes for so many ages. At the departure of the Hebrews from Egypt, China was already about seven hundred years old; when Isaiah prophesied Israel's future conversion to God, China had existed fifteen centuries.

Some idea of the vast extent of the Chinese Empire may be obtained by considering its line of sea-coast, running nearly three thousand miles, having an area of about five million square miles, its magnificent rivers, the largest of which is the Yang-tse-kiang, being thirty-five hundred miles in length, the third river in the world, and draining a basin of about eight hundred and fifty thousand square miles.

The Chinese have more strength of intellect, more solidity of character, and a higher civilization, than any other heathen nation. This is shown by their formation of a wise system of government, and an able code of laws; by their invention of the art of manufacturing silk fabrics, which, near the commencement of the Christian era, were sold to the Romans for their weight in gold; also, by the manufacture of porcelain and china ware, the best in the world; by the invention and use of gunpowder, and the magnetic needle; and by the invention of the art of printing, five hundred years before it was known in the West. They have good mental powers, which is shown by their extensive literature. As an indication of their intellectual ability, the fact may be mentioned that the few Chinese who have been educated in European and American colleges and universities have acquitted themselves with honor. A few years since a

Chinaman in Yale College bore off the first prize in his class for merit in English composition.

No science is taught in their schools; their literary men are utterly ignorant of the natural sciences, and of the geography and history of other countries. In their view, the earth is a plain occupied chiefly by China; the sun and stars revolve around the earth; the rain and the tides are caused by dragons; the wind by tigers; sickness by evil spirits. Their strength of character is manifest in their firm adherence to the opinions and principles which they adopt, and those ideas into which they have been educated. The stability of their character is strikingly observable in their aversion to change; they strictly adhere to the same principles which their forefathers taught thousands of years ago.

November 19th.—The money in China is in *taels* (one tael is equal in value to one dollar and thirty-three cents of American coin); they also have bank-bills of their own make, and there are in circulation a great many Mexican and American trade-dollars, which go at their par value, but American gold is at a discount.

In drawing money from the banks, both in Japan and China, application is first made to the president or cashier of the institution, who are English; they give an order upon the natives who are in attendance, called *compradores*, in a separate room, who handle and pay over the cash. Instead of their making figures and accounts upon paper, they have a small flat box in which there are some four or five rows of knobs strung on cords of wire, with which they can work out the most intricate sum with

accuracy; and even in their stores and places of business the accounts are reckoned by the same method in the shortest possible space of time.

Shanghai is a walled city, three miles in circuit, through which six gates open to the wide plain upon which it is situated, fronting on the river Woosung. The banks of the river are covered with dwellings, temples, shops, etc., among which is to be seen the Queen of Heaven, a conspicuous object.

The river, stretching along the front of the city, is literally filled with junks, some gliding down the stream, others sailing up; some moving by oars, and others lying at anchor. Shanghai is one of the first ports opened by the treaty of 1842, and previous to that time was little visited by foreigners, but has become the chief foreign commercial city of the empire; by this change, Canton has fallen off from her former greatness, both for the shipment of teas and other commodities. Shanghai was captured by the Taeping rebels in 1853, and held for two years, when they retreated from this part of China; and while the rebels were making bloody havoc in other parts of the empire there was a large influx of people to this city for protection and residence, which is one of the causes of its more rapid growth.

November 20th.—This evening we spent at the residence of Mr. Coryell, formerly of New York. Mr. and Mrs. Coryell, with compliments, sent a carriage for us, and we were cordially received by them. At ten o'clock dinner was served; after partaking of the hospitalities of the occasion, we returned to the hotel about midnight.

November 21st.—Sabbath. This forenoon, in going to church, we met two companies of sailors from off a British man-of-war, under the command of their respective officers, neatly clad, accompanied by a band playing sacred music upon the fife and drum, marching to the English church. On the one side the officers and soldiers were seated, and on the other the congregation. If this were done in the case of American war-vessels, as a rule, it would keep the sailors and soldiers from the numerous dens of vice and dissipation.

November 22d.—To-day we devote principally to shopping, which is really amusing. Almost every dwelling has a shop on the first floor, with open front, where all kinds of toys of native manufacture may be purchased; the inmates sit flat upon the floor, making up such articles as they offer for sale.

November 23d.—To-day we called upon Mr. Seward, the American consul, but did not see him. He has been stationed at this post for several years, and the people spoke very highly of him. He was confined to his residence by sickness. Mr. and Mrs. Coryell dined with us this afternoon at the Central Hotel.

November 24th.—We had purposed to visit Peking before leaving Shanghai for the south, but were advised not to undertake the journey, as it was late in the season, and we might be frozen in. We regretted not being able to reach the capital, but it is just as well to see a few Chinese cities as many, for they all bear a strong resemblance to each other. Before reaching Shanghai we had thought seriously of going up the Yang-tse-kiang River;

we found splendid American-built steamers with good accommodations, making regular trips, but, having been so much on water, upon previous tours, we thought that it would be more desirable to devote the time upon the land.

November 25th.—To-day Mr. Coryell invited us to take a sail with him in his steam-yacht. Our company consisted of Mr. and Mrs. Coryell, Mr. and Mrs. Runnels, and Mrs. Winants and myself. We left the dock in front of our hotel about ten o'clock in the forenoon. As we steam up the river we pass by numerous junks, some at anchor, others sailing both up and down the river. After having ascended the river for several miles, we enter one of the canals and go back into the country. At length we land in a small Chinese village, literally filled with women and children. We did not see many men; they were probably at work in the fields. Our ladies attracted their attention; the women took hold of and examined their clothing as if they were the first people of the kind that they had ever seen. They plucked off some bunches of wild-flowers and presented them to us, for which we gave in return some coins. Here stands one of the oldest, if not the largest, Chinese pagodas in the empire. This pagoda, like all others in China, is octagonal in shape, seven stories high. We ascended flights of circular steps to the upper story, whence we obtained a splendid view of the surrounding country, dotted with towns and hamlets as far as the eye could extend. The country is as level as the sea, with canals running in every direction. We had our lunch served on board the yacht, and arrived in Shanghai late in the afternoon.

November 26th.—This morning early we gather up movables, and take passage on board the French steamship Hoogly, for Hong-Kong; distance eight hundred and seventy miles, fare fifty-four taels apiece, equal to seventy-two dollars of American coin, being the highest fare for the distance that I have ever paid in any part of the world. The distance is about the same as between New York and Savannah, which is only twenty dollars in gold. We have in company several passengers, mostly gentlemen of business.

November 27th.—On the Pacific Ocean, weather good, wind light from northwest and fair; ship under full sail, sea smooth, course west-southwest. Thermometer 65° . Latitude $27^{\circ} 30'$ north, longitude $119^{\circ} 28'$ east. Ship ran, from yesterday up to 12 m., three hundred and twenty-four miles. By carrying the French mail, they drive the ship to her fullest capacity in order to make quick time. We cross hundreds of junks at sea, out of sight of the land, taking fish with nets; these nets are from one to one hundred and fifty fathoms in length, and about ten feet in width, with small sinkers made of lead on one side of the net to sink it below the water's surface, and corks on the upper side to keep it on the surface. When it is thrown from the boat on a circular line, another boat takes hold of the far end, and so the net is drawn through the sea till the boats come together; then the net is hauled into the boats with the fishes. These fishing-junks are excellent sea-going craft, and remain at sea for several months; they contain entire families, consisting of men, women, and children.

November 28th.—On the Pacific Ocean, wind light from northwest; weather charming. Thermometer 68° . Sea smooth, course west-southwest; ship under full sail. Latitude $23^{\circ} 30'$ north, longitude $115^{\circ} 46'$ east. Made two hundred and ninety-five miles up to 12 M.

November 29th.—This forenoon, at ten o'clock, we arrive in the port of Hong-Kong, having been three days on our passage from Shanghai. The ship drops anchor off in the stream. In landing we are surrounded by small boats, called *sampans*. In the midst of great bustle and confusion we succeed in getting our luggage into one of the boats, and soon find ourselves landed upon the *bund*, and make our way to the Hong-Kong Hotel; board two dollars and a half per day each.

CHAPTER VIII.

HONG-KONG.

November 30th.—Hong-Kong is an island adjacent to the mainland, containing a population of one hundred and twenty thousand, and very mountainous; there is scarcely a level acre upon the whole island. There is a little spot about a mile from the city, called the Happy Valley, which has been appropriated for a race-course; above these sporting-grounds on the side of the hills, upon rising ground, are several cemeteries for the English and Roman Catholics. The island is made up of lofty peaks, one of which, Victoria Peak, overhangs the town, and from whose summit one could almost throw a stone into the streets. It looms up eighteen hundred and thirty feet above the city. The view from the peak affords a sight of the entire city and a great part of the island. The peak is ascended in sedan-chairs, each chair carried by four coolies, and it requires an hour to reach its summit. The city is built along and in front of the harbor, in terraces rising one above another, until the upper tier is reached, some three or four hundred feet in height. Many of the dwellings are palaces, and the public buildings would do honor to any city. The governor's residence, which stands back upon one of the upper streets

overlooking the city, is a fine mansion. The City Hall is another fine structure.

Hong-Kong is one of the free ports of China, and is principally settled by the English. It is divided into two parts, the natives occupying one section and the English the other. Victoria is the English name of the town, although abroad it is commonly called Hong-Kong. It is one of the chief foreign cities on the China coast, and is visited by more ships than any other. It is said to be a sort of posting station for the whole Eastern world. Ships of all nationalities are lying in port, waiting for orders from their owners, while others are discharging and taking in their cargoes. It being an English colony, shipmasters feel more safe than they did a few years ago, when for any trifling offense the natives, becoming displeased, would scuttle or burn the ships, and often murder the crews.

December 1st.—To-day we made a call upon Mr. Baily, the American consul, who courteously received us and gave much information as to the manners and customs of the people, and who kindly offered his services to do anything that would best facilitate our movements.

We visited the Colonial Prison, where some four or five hundred criminals of various nationalities are confined. I have never seen a penitentiary more neatly kept, and seemingly under better management. Among the prisoners were several Chinese women, who had been convicted of child-stealing, which is a very common crime in China. These female convicts are compelled to

stand erect upon their feet, and toe a straight line, for several hours each day. The male convicts are punished according to the different grades of crime: those confined for stealing are compelled to pick up a cannon-ball weighing twenty-four pounds, carry it for some three or four paces, then lay it down for the space of one minute, and continue the performance for three hours each day; others go in couples with the end of a bamboo-stick resting on each one's shoulder, from the centre of which is suspended a stone of eighty pounds' weight; others are compelled to turn a mill by hand, which has to make a certain number of revolutions before they can have their meals. We saw some who had been incarcerated for non-payment of debt, for which the complainants had to pay five cents per day for the prisoner's maintenance. For some offenses they are scourged with twenty-five lashes upon their bare backs, while those convicted of murder have their heads cut off. The superintendent of the prison invited us to call on the following day to witness the scourging of some prisoners, and the execution of those who had incurred the penalty of death.

Mr. Baily, the American consul, through Captain Low, one of our fellow-passengers from Shanghai, invited us to take a sail around the island. We accepted the invitation; but, when the time had arrived to leave the dock, Mr. Baily sent word that he could not go, on account of some unexpected business that required his attention. Captain Low took command of the little steam-yacht. We first visited the navy-yards and the

dry-docks, and some of the public institutions upon the neighboring islands; then we proceeded to view the spot where the steamship Alaska was, by the typhoon of 1874, picked up and blown high and dry upon the shore, where she lay for nearly two months. We had in our company a very interesting party of ladies and gentlemen, all highly enjoying the excursion.

CHAPTER IX.

CANTON AND ITS SIGHTS.

December 2d.—This morning at eight o'clock we take passage on board the side-wheel steamer White Cloud, of American build, for Canton, distance ninety miles; fare for the round trip, up and down, eleven dollars. Our course for forty-five miles—half of our voyage—lay among sea-islands, giving us only occasional glimpses of the mainland. We then enter the deep river, the banks of which are lined with forts. These works, before the Opium War, were regarded by the Chinese authorities as a reliable defense. The English, having captured them, stipulated that they should not again be garrisoned; they are now falling into ruin. Therefore Canton, the southern capital of China, is absolutely defenseless, with a British naval and military force at its very door. Whampoa is some fifteen miles down the river, below Canton, where large ships are moored to take in heavy cargoes of merchandise. The river-banks, above Whampoa, present scenes of tropical luxuriance and beauty. The valley expands, as far as the eye can reach, and is covered with sugar-plantations, banana and orange groves, and occasionally we pass by a tea-plantation, and on some of the higher ground near the city may be seen pagodas.

At three o'clock in the afternoon we arrived in the city of Canton, and, by the time our steamer's anchor had touched the bottom, we were surrounded by swarms of small boats called *sampans*; they were covered over with bamboo-tops, which are adapted to keep off both sun and rain. They were all manned by women, one of whom at once caught up my baggage and ran off with it. The crowd being so great, and the confusion perplexing, I thought at the moment that I should lose my property. I ran after the woman, crossing over boat after boat, until she made a halt, when I asked her what she intended to do with my satchel. She answered in broken English that I should go with her, as she kept the hotel. Finally, I said that, if she would wait till I hunted up the ladies who had been lost in the crowd, we would take passage in her boat. She was barefooted and bareheaded, but what little clothing she had on was clean, her hair well dressed and trimmed with ornaments, and she possessed a bright and cheerful countenance, with an easy address. After our company of four were seated in her little craft, which was neat and clean, she bent herself to the oars, and in a few moments we were landed alongside of the dock. After ascending a half-dozen or more stone steps we found ourselves in the hotel, fronting on the river. The house was fearfully ancient, at least a thousand years old; the rooms were more like barns than bedchambers. We soon succeeded in getting the choicest apartments in the house, at two dollars and a quarter per day. I asked the proprietor, who could speak English enough to be under-

stood, if the woman who brought us from the steamer kept the hotel; he laughingly replied that this was the International Hotel, and that the woman who brought us from the steamer was his boat-woman. When the gong sounded for tiffin, we found the table much better supplied than we expected, and the entertainment as good as, if not better than, we had received in more modern hotels.

The city of Canton is beautifully situated on the banks of the Pearl River, on low and flat land, but in the distance high hills are visible. The city proper is inclosed by walls of from six to seven miles in circumference, having a partition wall, running east and west, which divides it into two unequal parts. The entire circuit, including the suburbs, is over ten miles. The population, on land and water, is reported to be about one million. Of this number about one-third are supposed to reside in boats upon the water. The multitude of boats and junks which throng the river makes it difficult to navigate. There are at least as many houses outside the walls as within them. It is said that the city is rapidly increasing. The houses stretch along on both sides of the river, a distance of from three to four miles, and the banks are everywhere nearly concealed by the boats, which are of all sizes.

We learn from the most reliable authority that the city of Canton was settled about two centuries before Christ, but traders were located here even prior to that time. It grew in importance as the country became better settled, and in the seventh century a regular mar-

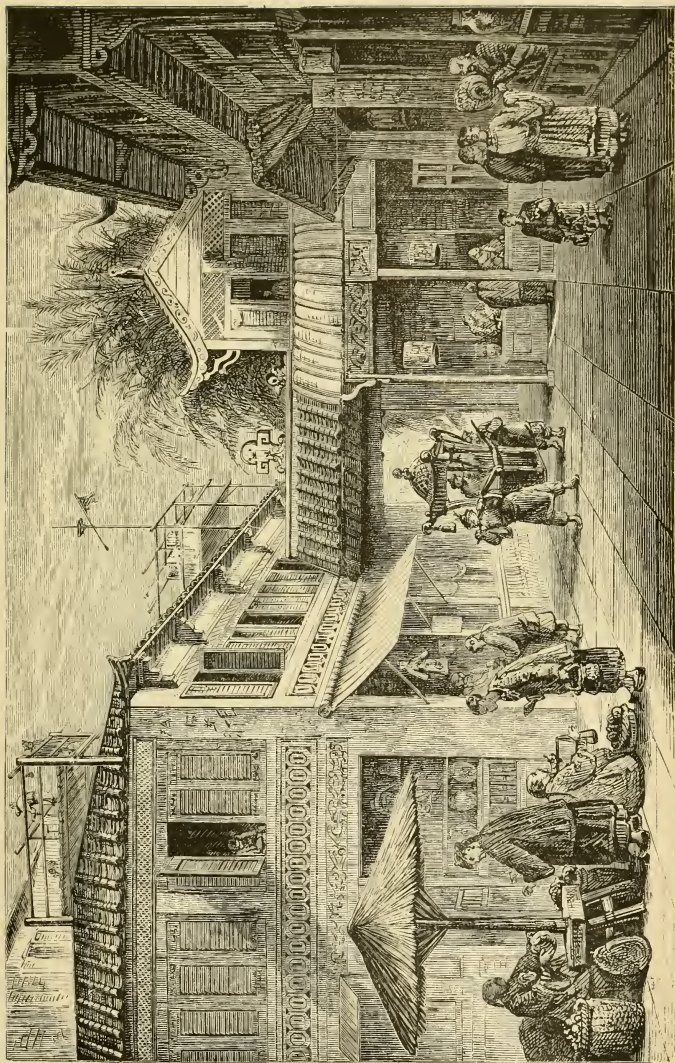
ket was opened and a collector of customs appointed. When the Mantchoos invaded and overran the country, this city was finally captured by treachery, and one hundred thousand men were killed at its sack, and the whole number who lost their lives at the final assault and during the siege was over half a million. Since then Canton has been rebuilt, and so increased in prosperity that it is now regarded as the second city in the empire for numbers, and next to Peking for wealth.

The foundations of the city walls are of sandstone, and their upper part brick; they are about twenty feet thick, and range from twenty-five to forty feet high, having an esplanade on the one side, and pathways leading to the ramparts on the other.

The houses are built very near the wall, on both sides of it, so that one hardly sees it when walking around the city, except on the north. There are twelve outer gates, four in the partition walls, and water-gates through which boats pass, from east to west, across the new part of the city. A ditch, or moat, once encompassed the city walls, said to have been filled with water, but which is now dry. The canals within the city's inclosure are filled with the tide-water from the river. The inhabitants are supplied with water for washing from these canals and the river, and drinking-water is plentifully furnished from many springs and wells. The gates of the city are all shut at night, and a guard is constantly stationed at them to preserve order. Some of the principal gates are named thus: Great Peace Gate, Eternal Rest Gate, Bamboo Gate, Wicket Gate, etc.

The appearance of the city, when viewed from the hills on the north, is uninviting, compared with Western cities, being an expanse of reddish roofs relieved by a few large trees, and interspersed with numerous high red poles used for flag-staffs. A number of pagodas shoot up within the walls, looming to the height of from five to seven stories. We ascended one of the highest. From this great elevation the river is a prominent feature in the landscape, covered with a great diversity of boats of different colors and sizes, some stationary, others moving, and all resounding with the mingled hum of laborers, sailors, children, and boatmen, pursuing their several sports and occupations. A fort called Dutch Folly, or Sea Pearl by the natives, is situated on a little island in the river, covered with trees and buildings. Still farther can be seen, on the southern side of the river, the island of Hainan, and beyond green fields, covered with rich vegetation, while the grand old river, winding its way to the ocean, looks like a silver thread at the feet of the beholder. The hills to the north of the city rise twelve hundred feet above the river, and for several miles are covered with graves and tombs; little or no vegetation can be seen upon them from our point of observation. Three or four forts are built on eligible spots nearest the northern walls.

The streets are too narrow to be seen from our elevated position; they are from seven to ten feet in width, twist about in every conceivable way, and number more than six hundred. The names of some of the streets are characteristic, as Martial Street, Dragon Street, Pearl



STREET IN CANTON.

Street, Golden-Flower Street, New Green-Pea Street, Physic Street, Spectacle Street, etc. They are kept tolerably clean, considering the number of pedestrians who fill them to their fullest capacity.

The houses along the river-front are built upon piles driven into the ground, and it is said that when the waters rise, as in the time of freshets, that part of the city adjacent to the river is inundated.

We were carried through the city in sedan-chairs, each one of our party in a separate chair, which is suspended between long poles and carried by two coolies, one of them in front and the other behind the sedan. We were accompanied by an experienced guide, who was educated in the different languages expressly to enable him to perform his duties intelligently while conducting strangers about the city. We visited all the principal places in this mysterious city, through lanes and dark places, without being in any wise molested. By the shopkeepers, from whom we purchased some small articles, we were cordially treated, and yet the natives eyed us as if we were the first strangers they had seen.

We saw sights peculiar and foreign to all the outside world. We could not venture alone into the streets, one hundred yards from our palace hotel, for fear of being lost. Some of the streets are perfect bazaars, the shops on either side being filled with costly articles well arranged for effect: rich silks, ivory, jewelry, and fancy-work of all kinds; and over every door may be seen an image of Joss, or some one of their gods. All the prin-

cipal streets are hung with gay banners, suspended from the tops of the houses and from the fronts of the shops, forming a complete canopy, shutting out the light of the sun. The signs, which are gaudy, stand upright, and with their bright colors give a pretty aspect to both the streets and buildings. The noisy tide of human beings constantly surging hither and thither through these narrow avenues, on foot and in sedan-chairs, with coolies carrying burdens of all kinds, blockaded the streets at intervals, and brought us to a stand; but, at length, we managed by hard squeezing to force our way through the busy and chattering crowd.

The Buddhist temple called Hai-chwang, opposite the foreign factories, and commonly known as the Honan Joss-house, is one of the largest in Canton. Its grounds cover about seven acres, surrounded by a high wall, and divided into courts, gardens, and burial-ground, where are deposited the ashes of the priests, whose bodies are first burned. The architectural designs of the buildings present nothing worthy of note, consisting mostly of cloisters or apartments surrounding a court; within is a temple or pavilion. The buildings are overshadowed by large trees, the resort of thousands of birds. The outer gateway opens upon the street on the river-front, and leads up a gravel-walk to a high portico guarded by two huge figures, through which we enter a small inclosure, separated from the larger one by another spacious porch, in which are four large statues. From here we are conducted to the main temple, a low building about one hundred feet square, surrounded by pillars;

it contains three gilded images in a sitting posture, called San, Pan, and Fuh, or the past, present, and future Buddha, each of them being about twenty feet high, surrounded by numerous altars and smaller images. Daily prayers are chanted before them by a large body



ENTRANCE TO THE TEMPLE OF HONAN.

of people and priests, all dressed in yellow robes, who go through the performance with great pomp and regularity. Beyond this is a small building, which contains a marble repository bearing somewhat the resemblance of a pagoda, under which, rumor says, is preserved one

of the toe-nails of Buddha, the relic being deeply venerated by the devotees. This court contains numerous shrines and offices for the accommodation of the priests, among which are the printing-office and library, both of them respectable for size.

There are one hundred and seventy-five priests connected with this establishment, only a portion of whom can read and write. They eat no flesh of any kind, red rice being their principal food. In one part of the temple-grounds there is a spot appropriated to the reception of swine, which are fed so long as they live.

Besides the Honan Temple, there are two others in the old city belonging to Buddha. One of them, called Kwang-hian, or Temple of the Glorious Filial Duty, contains two hundred priests, who are supported from the lands belonging to the establishment, which are situated outside of the city, containing thirty-five hundred acres. The number of priests in Canton is estimated to be over two thousand, nine-tenths of whom are Buddhists.

The Ching-hwang-mian is conceded to be one of the most important religious institutions in Canton, where both rulers and people offer their devotions for the welfare of the city. The superintendent of this institution, I am informed, pays four thousand dollars for the privilege of selling candles, incense, etc., to the worshipers. The areas in front of most of the temples are occupied by hucksters, beggars, and idlers.

The Chinese generally travel by water. In the construction and management of their river-craft they are expert and not excelled. Most of the boats in and about

Canton are intended to be the residences of those who navigate them. Only a part of the large fleet of boats seen on the Pearl River at Canton are intended for transportation, a great number being designed for fixed residences, and perhaps one-half of them are moored stem-and-stern in rows. They are not obliged to remain where they station themselves, but both the boats and their inmates are under the supervision of a water-police, who register them and point out the position they may occupy. Those that are employed in carrying merchandise, such as tea, salt, flour, etc., are grouped together and more easily found. It is reported that nearly fifty thousand boats are registered as belonging to the city of Canton. It would seem incredible for such a large number to remain moored in the river at the same time, but doubtless many of them are at sea. No one who has been at Canton can forget the bustling, noisy, and animating sight upon the river, nor fail to have noticed the good-humored carefulness with which boats of every size pass each other without collision.

It is difficult to describe the many kinds of vessels found on the Chinese waters. They are furnished with stern-sculls, which move upon a pivot, and are easily propelled amid the crowd. Larger boats are furnished with two or three sculls, which, when not in use, are hauled in upon the side of the vessel. They are also provided with oars, which are fastened by withes and run in a band attached to a large wooden pin. The masts in some of the large cargo-boats have two spars, resting on the gunwales and meeting above, and so ar-

ranged as to be hoisted at pleasure; in those boats designed for residences no provision is made for masts, the oars and sculls being sufficient to do the work required. Fishing-boats, lighters, and sea-going vessels, have one or more permanent masts. In these larger boats a wale or framework projects from the side, on which the boatmen walk when poling the vessel. The sails are made of common matting, sewed into a single sheet, and pro-



TRADING-JUNK.

vided with yards at the top and bottom, and bamboo ribs on the face, which serve to retain the loops that run on the masts, and enable the boatmen to haul them close on the wind. A driver is sometimes placed on the taff-rail, and a small foresail near the bow. No Chinese boat has a bowsprit.

The internal arrangement of the boat-dwellings is simple, and they are said to be kept cleaner than their houses. The better class are from sixty to eighty feet

long, and fifteen to eighteen feet in width, divided into three rooms comprising a kitchen, a place to do their work, and a place to sleep. The cooking and washing are performed on the high framework astern, which is admirably contrived for such purposes, having furnaces and other conveniences. By means of awnings and framework the top of the boat also subserves many objects of work or pleasure. The windows are closed with shutters and curtains, and the wood-work is fancifully carved and painted.

A large number of Canton boats are about twenty-five feet long, containing only one room, and are covered with movable mats so contrived as to inclose the whole vessel; they are usually rowed or sculled by women, who thus earn a livelihood, while their husbands work in the city by the day. In these boats whole families are reared, live, and die. The room which serves for passengers by day is a bedroom by night; a kitchen at one time, a wash-room at another, and a nursery always. The inside of the boats is movable, and when cleaning is to be done the boat is floated on shore, emptied to the skin, turned bottom up and scrubbed, and the whole put to rights in a comparatively short time, and then floated off.

The lighters are called chop-boats; some of these occasionally serve for passenger-boats. Those in which tea, salt, and miscellaneous cargoes are transported, are from eighty to ninety feet long, and will carry from two to three hundred tons. The passage-boats are similar in construction to the lighters, with the exception of a

small cabin for women in the bow. The passengers bring their own bedding, and select a place at night in the main room, where as many sleep as can find places, others accommodating themselves on deck. Many of these boats arrive and depart from Canton daily, so loaded down with passengers that they may be compared to floating ant-hills, or swarms of bees.

The revenue-officers employ a narrow, sharp-built boat, propelled by forty or fifty rowers, at the rate of twelve to thirteen miles an hour. They are armed with swivels, spears, and pikes; they are lined on the sides with an array of rattan shields, painted to represent tigers' heads. The smugglers about Canton, who are numerous, have similar-made boats. They don't carry the national flag, but each officer hoists the duplicate of the banner belonging to his own office. Junks carry a great variety of flags, but no private vessel is allowed to hoist the imperial yellow.

The dwellers on the water are not debarred from living on shore. A boat can be built cheaper than a brick house, and is equally comfortable; it pays no ground-rent, is kept clean easier, and is not so liable to fire or depredations from thieves. Most of the boats are constructed of fir or pine wood, and cost from thirty dollars up to three or four thousand, and much higher prices are paid for sea-boats. Few of them are painted; the wood is bright, covered with varnish or oil, which gives them rather a pretty appearance; the seams are calked with bamboo or rattan shavings mixed with oil, and coated with cement. Most of the sailing-craft employed on the

river are flat-bottomed, with sharp bows and broad sterns. The stern is open, and the rudder can be hoisted up and through it in shallow water. The anchors are of wood, with iron-bound flukes, and held by cables made of bamboo.

The junks are larger than the river-craft; they have three masts, stepped in a framework, supported by stays, but having no yards or shrouds. The original model of a junk is said to be a huge sea-monster; the teeth at the cut-water and top of the stem define its mouth, while the long boards on each side of the bow form the likeness of the head, with eyes painted on them; the masts and sails represent the fins, and the high stern the tail. The cabins look more like niches in a sepulchre than for the accommodation of passengers. The hold has no decks, and is divided into water-tight compartments, a contrivance that has its advantages when the vessel strikes a rock. The channel-wale is a large beam, and in some junks it projects so much as to give the sides a bulging appearance. The quarter-galleries and framework above the stern are high, and look dangerous to the vessel in heavy weather. Many of the new vessels now being built are fitted and rigged with sails of canvas instead of matting. The native commerce in junks, both up and down the coast, is extensive; and there has been a considerable trade with Japan to the north, and as far south as Hindostan, with which countries it is now somewhat decreasing, for the Chinese merchants are learning that foreign vessels are both safer and cheaper.

There have been some fearful scenes among this float-

ing population by the typhoons which sweep over the China seas with great force, and which are so destructive to shipping, but seldom reach as far inland as Canton. Not long ago an English ship fell in with the cargo and crew of a wrecked junk, and saved one hundred and ninety-eight persons out of sixteen hundred. It is said that, a few moments before the typhoon comes on, at intervals a slight noise is heard whirling around and then stopping, sometimes with great force, and again slow; then fiery clouds collect in the heavens in thick masses; the thunder sounds deep and heavy, and rainbows appear, forming an unbroken curve with its ends dipped into the sea; the sea sends back a bellowing sound, and boils with angry surges; the loose rocks upon the shore dash against each other. When the height and force of the tempest are loose, rain descends, carrying away roofs of houses, and trees are torn up by the roots; horses and cattle are blown from their feet, and the ships and boats upon the sea are either swamped or blown on dry land, while the inhabitants flee for their lives. Most of the vessels lost upon the coasts of China and Japan are by typhoons. The Chinese dread these gales so much that they have erected a special temple to the typhoon-mother, a goddess, whom they supplicate for protection against them.

Among the principal branches of Chinese industry are the growth and preparation of tea, which plant has been most celebrated abroad. The gradual introduction and use of this beverage among the nations of the Western world, and the important consequences of bringing

the nationalities of the civilized world into more intimate intercourse, and opening to the Chinese the blessings of Christian civilization through this trade, are among the most interesting results that have ever flowed from commerce. The gradual demand for tea encouraged the Chinese to a greater production, and to the taking of foreign articles partly in exchange for it, while the governments of the West have derived much advantage from the duties. The tea-plant is not so much cultivated about Canton as in the north of China; only a few fields along the Pearl River both below and above Canton are seen. Its infusion forms a common beverage of every household for nearly two-thirds of the human race.

A knowledge of the tea-plant among the Chinese can be traced back to the third century, and its use was introduced into Europe in the eighth century. The tea-plant is from three to six feet high, and presents a dense mass of foliage on an infinite number of small twigs, a result of the practice of being cut down. Where it is found wild in the jungles it reaches the height of thirty feet or more. The leaf is of a dark-green color, of an oblong oval shape, and the flowers are white; the seeds are like hazel-nuts in size and color, three of them being inclosed in a hard husk, and contain oil; the oil is said to be acrid and bitter, and is used for various purposes. The leaves are picked from the plant when three years old, but it does not attain full size before six or seven years, and thrives, according to circumstances, and with care, from fifteen to twenty years, being gradually killed by constantly depriving it of its foliage. By continual

pruning, the twigs increase, and the quantity of leaves develops the branches, so that the large, healthy shrubs resemble a collection rather than a single bush. The annual product of a single plant of large size is said to be from six to eight ounces, and that a thousand square yards of land contain between three and four hundred plants.

Three crops of leaves are gathered annually. The first picking is about the middle of April, or whenever the tender leaf-buds begin to open, and while the leaves are still covered with a whitish down; the flowers, though not very numerous, produce the finest tea. The second gathering is about the first of May, when the shrubs are covered with full-sized leaves. Chinese writers say that the weather has great influence upon the condition of the leaves, and that an excess or a want of rain mildews or withers them, so as materially to affect the quality and quantity of the crop. When the proper time has arrived, a large number of hands are engaged to gather the leaves rapidly, giving employment to men, women, and children. The leaves are collected by handfuls, by stripping them off the branches as rapidly as possible, and throwing them into baskets slung around the neck, in which they are taken to the storehouses. Each person can on an average pick thirteen pounds of leaves in a day, for which the picker receives about six cents. The third crop is collected about the middle of July, and there is also a fourth gleaning in the latter part of August. The first two crops of leaves make the best tea, and the last two gatherings afford only inferior

kinds, seldom imported and used for home consumption. The quality of the different kinds of tea depends almost as much upon the mode of curing as upon the nature of the soil, or age of the leaf; some sorts are quite changed in their particular flavor by the curing and mixing processes they undergo. After the leaves are gathered and housed, they are carefully assorted and the yellow and old ones picked out; then they are thinly spread upon bamboo trays and placed upon frames in the wind, where they remain until the leaves begin to soften; then they are gently rolled and rubbed until red spots begin to appear, when they are tested by pouring hot water upon them to see if the edge of the leaf turns yellowish. When the leaves have been rolled, they are ready for firing. The iron pan having been previously heated, the workman takes a handful of leaves and sprinkles them upon it, and waits until each leaf pops, when he brushes them off before they are charred. The pans sit in iron boilers upon mason-work in an inclined position, and at a convenient height in rows, and are heated by means of a flue passing lengthwise under the whole. The heat soon forces the oil out of the leaves, when they crack and soften, and after four or five minutes are taken out into trays for rolling. This operation is performed upon tables made of split bamboos laid close together, with their round sides up. The workmen take handfuls of the hot leaves and roll and knead them upon the table, in order to drive out the oily green, which falls through the bamboo sticks upon the floor.

After the leaves are thus properly rolled, they are

shaken out loosely upon trays and exposed to the air to complete the drying; the object is to dry them in the gentlest manner, that they may not lose their brittleness, nor become crisp in the sun. After undergoing this process of air-drying, they are again thrown in large quantities into the pans, which are heated to a less degree than before, and there stirred, in order that all may be equally dried and none be scorched.

In some parts of China the process here described varies. After the leaves have been put into the firing-pan to be subjected to the heat, then rolled upon the table and exposed to the sun, instead of being returned to the pans they are scattered upon a fine sieve and placed over the same fire, the iron pan having been taken out. This fire is of charcoal, covered with ashes to prevent smoking the leaves, and while over it they are slowly turned until thoroughly dried; they are then removed to coarser sieves, and the fine and coarse leaves in this way partially separated before packing. This mode of drying gives the leaves a greenish cast, varying in degree according to the length of time they are exposed to the sun and fire. The common sorts of black tea are left in the sun and air, after the first process of firing and rolling, a much longer time—even for two or three days—until a partial decomposition of the leaves has begun from the effects of the heating and squeezing they have undergone; they are, moreover, again thrown into the pans, and rolled and stirred about for a longer time when intended for exportation than when put up for domestic use.

The question has often been discussed whether black and green teas are made from the same plant, and whether they can be made from each other. I am informed that both black and green are made of the same leaves, the difference in the color being ascribed to the mode of preparation; green tea is cured more rapidly over the fire than black.

The opinion prevails that the nervous effects usually experienced after drinking green tea are owing to its



TEA-HOUSE.

being cured upon copper. I am informed that copper vessels are never used. In Japan I was in one or two of the largest tea-houses; there the drying was done in iron vessels, and I did not see a copper one in use. The principal cause of the peculiar taste of green tea is ascribed to the use of chemical substances to give it the desired color.

A great part of the tea produced in China is brought

to Canton, more than a thousand miles from the place of its growth. The Chinese will, no doubt, maintain their supremacy in the tea-trade, notwithstanding the efforts to grow the plant in other countries. The native names given to the various sorts of tea are derived from the names of the districts or places in which it grows.

December 3d.—Both in China and Japan men may be seen carrying through the streets portable kitchens, suspended from a pole about six feet long, which rests upon their shoulders. On one end is suspended a small stove, and on the other food; they stop at intervals to deal out to the coolies hot tea and chow. It is also common to see barbers traveling through the streets with a pot of hot water to shave the heads of the coolies, and to plat their cues; but the men have smooth faces and no whiskers.

December 4th.—This morning at nine o'clock we take leave of the great Celestial city for Hong-Kong, distance ninety miles. In going down the river we see some fine tea and sugar plantations. The captain of our steamer on the King-Shan informed us that, on leaving port, they lock the second-class passengers below-decks, and keep a sentinel during the voyage pacing the forward deck, watching the gangway. In the main cabin, a number of swords and muskets hung upon the joiner-work, to be used in case the ship should be attacked by pirates, which is a common occurrence in the China seas.

Only last week, a passenger-boat from up the coast, on her passage to Canton, was attacked by pirates, who killed part of the steamer's crew and plundered the ves-

sel. It is said that the China seas are infested with pirates. These piratical craft are strongly equipped with men having fire-arms, who stay and live at sea until they have taken a prize, when the booty is landed upon one of the lonely islands, some of which are inhabited by cannibals. Both in Japan and China, for the better protection of property and life, the merchant-vessels sail in fleets. At three o'clock in the afternoon we arrived in Hong-Kong, and put up at the Hong-Kong Hotel; board two dollars and a half per day.

December 5th.—This being the Sabbath, we attend the Union Church, where all the Protestant denominations assemble. The edifice was neat and tolerably well filled.

CHAPTER X.

RELIGION OF THE CHINESE.

IN order to a right understanding of Chinese character and civilization, some knowledge of the system of idolatry which prevails in the empire, and of the religious beliefs of the people, is absolutely necessary; but the real religious belief and practices of a heathen people are difficult to describe intelligibly. Men naturally exercise much freedom of thought in such matters; and, though it is comparatively easy to describe religious ceremonies and festivals, the real belief of a pagan people—that which constitutes their religion, their trust in danger and guide in doubt, their prompter to present action and hope for future reward—is not quickly understood nor easily described. There has been much written upon the religion of the Chinese, and yet no one has very satisfactorily given the true nature of their belief, and the intent of their ritual. The reason is owing partly to the indefinite ideas of the people themselves upon the character of their ceremonies, and their inability to give a clear notion of them, and partly to the variety of observances found in different parts of the country, and the discordant opinions entertained by those belonging to the same sect, so that what is seen in one district is sometimes not known in the one adjacent.

There is a state religion in China of very ancient date, which has undergone few modifications in its features during the long succession of monarchs, and it still retains much of its primitive simplicity. Dr. Morrison observes that the state religion of the Chinese does not consist of doctrines which are to be taught, learned, and believed, but of rites and ceremonies; it is entirely a bodily service, and its ritual is contained in the statistics and code of the empire. The objects of state worship are chiefly things, although persons are also included. Sacrifices are offered to many objects, viz.: the sun, or great light; the moon, or night-light; fire, because it gives both light and heat; clouds, rain, wind, and thunder, seas and rivers, the goddess of the earth, and many other things. Those who assist the emperor in his ordinary worship, and perform the ceremonies, belong to the imperial family. When he worships heaven, he wears robes of a blue color, in allusion to the sky; and when he worships earth, he puts on yellow, to represent clay. So likewise he wears red for the sun, and pale white for the moon. The princes, nobles, and imperial officers who assist the emperor, are clad in their usual court dresses, but neither priests nor women are admitted to witness or allowed to take part in the ceremonies.

The hierophants in this worship of Nature, so lauded by some infidels, are required to prepare themselves for the occasion by fasting, ablutions, and change of garments, and keep from touching the dead; for sickness and death defile, and unfit the mind for holding communion with the gods. The sacrifices consist of calves,

bullocks, sheep, pigs, and the offerings of silk, and many other things; every one is willing to worship whatever can promise relief or afford assistance.

The remarks of Confucius upon religious subjects were very brief. He never taught the duty of man to any higher power than the head of the state or family,



IMAGE OF CONFUCIUS.

although he supposed himself commissioned by Heaven to restore the doctrine and usages of the ancient kings. He admitted that he did not understand much about the gods, that they were beyond and above the comprehension of man, and that the obligations upon men were in doing their duty to relatives, and the society in which

they moved, rather than in worshiping spirits unknown. He said, "Not knowing even life, how can we know death?" His system of materialism captivates his countrymen, for it allows great scope for the vagaries of every individual who thinks he understands and can apply it to explain whatever phenomena come in his way: heat and cold, light and darkness, fire and water, mind and matter, every agent, power, and substance, known and supposed, are endued with these principles, and their infinite reactions and varied consequences explained by them. His system is also entirely silent respecting the immortality of the soul, as well as future rewards and punishments. Virtue is rewarded and vice is punished in the individual, or in his posterity, on earth, but of a separate state of existence he and his disciples do not speak.

In disposing of the existence of superior powers, the philosophers do not shut out all intelligent agencies, but have instituted a class of sages or pure-minded men, who have been raised up from time to time by Heaven, or some other power, as instructors and examples to mankind; the office of these holy men, or saints, was to expound the will of Heaven on earth: they did not so much speak their own thoughts as illustrate and settle the principles on which the world should be governed. Of all the saints in the calendar Confucius is the chief. With him are reckoned the early kings, as Yan and Shun; but China has produced no one since that would equal him. The deceased emperors of the reigning dynasty are canonized as saints; every one is willing to

worship whatever can give relief or afford the greatest assistance; but all alike fail in satisfying the desire of pardon of sin, and answering the question, "How shall a man be just with his God?" for no one of their modes of worship reaches the heart, or convinces the soul of its accountability, or shows it the way to true happiness.

There is another sect of rationalists founded by Lao-tse. He was born 604 B. C., thirty-four years before Confucius, and is believed to have had white hair and eyebrows at his birth. According to the account given by Pauthier, who has examined his history with some attention, his parents were poor, and, after reaching mature years, he was appointed librarian by the emperor, when he diligently applied himself to the study of ancient books, and became acquainted with all the rites and histories of former times. The teaching of Lao-tse recommends retirement and contemplation as the most effectual means of purifying the spiritual part of our nature. He says: All material visible forms are only emanations of reason; and reason formed all beings. All the visible parts of the universe, all beings composing it, the heavens and the entire solar system, have been formed of the first elementary matter. Before the birth of heaven and earth, there existed only an immeasurable void space in the midst of darkness and silence. Reason alone, Lao-tse says, produced one, one produced two, two produced three, and three made all things. All beings repose on the feminine principle, and they embrace the male principle; a kind of fecundating breath keeps up their harmony. He also teaches the emanation and return

of all good beings into the bosom of Reason, and their eternal existence therein ; but, if not good, the miseries of successive births and their accompanying sorrows await them.

One of the most celebrated rationalistic writers is Chwang-toz, a disciple of Lao-tse, from whom his followers derive more of their opinions than their master himself. His writings have been repeatedly commented upon by members of the fraternity, and are referred to as authoritative. In ancient times small parties of them retired to secluded places to meditate upon virtue. When Confucius visited Lao-tse, he upbraided the sage for his ambition in collecting so many disciples and seeking after office, and added that such a course of conduct was more likely to nourish pride than cherish the love of virtue and wisdom. He said the wise man loves obscurity, and avoids ambition of office, persuaded that, at the end of life, a man can only leave behind such good maxims as he has practised and taught to others.

Confucius understood his countrymen and his own duty much better than Lao-tse, in doing all he could, by precept and practice, to show the excellence of what he believed to be right and just.

The priests of this sect are numerous ; they live in temples, cultivating the ground attached to the establishment. Some lead a wandering life, and procure a livelihood from the sale of charms and other small articles. They shave the sides of the head, and coil the rest of the hair in a tuft upon the crown, and are recognized by their slate-colored robes. They study astrology, and

profess to have dealings with spirits; and their books contain a great variety of stories of the sect, and of priests who have done wonderful acts by their help.

Buddhism is the principal religion of China and of the whole of Eastern Asia. According to the best Oriental scholars, Siddhartha, the son of Suddhodana, king of a large territory on the confines of Oude and Nepaul, was born about the beginning of the sixth century before Christ. At the age of thirty he fled from his father's kingdom and became religious, diligently studying the law of the Brahmans. Finding this unsatisfactory, he secluded himself from the world, and for many years occupied himself in endeavoring to discover the cause of things. Having at length, as he thought, succeeded, he changed his name to Buddha, and devoted the rest of his life to preaching the new gospel, whereby the world was to be led to the knowledge of the truth. His converts were many and influential, several of the royal families becoming earnest and devoted to the new religion. Buddha died at the age of eighty years.

Buddhism has assumed different forms in different countries. A distinction is made between southern Buddhism as it is found in Ceylon and that which prevails in the north of China. The religious books of northern Buddhism are in Sanskrit; those of southern Buddhism are in Pali, a language of more recent origin. The northern Buddhists have also added books, and dialectics, not known elsewhere.

In Thibet the system is connected with a religious hierarchy, exercising political power, at the head of which

is the grand lama, who is regarded as the incarnation of Buddha. When the grand lama dies, the priests fix upon some infant into whose body the spirit of the deceased lama is supposed to have passed, and the infant becomes the next grand lama. But in China no such religious hierarchy has been tolerated, and Buddhism exists without lamas.

The distinctive characteristic of the Buddhist system is a belief in a benevolent deity, whose special object and care it is to save men from sin and its evil consequences; and also in the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and the efficacy of good works. In accordance with these doctrines, Buddhism consists of prayers to the numerous gods, for the anticipated wants of the saints in Hades, and also for deceased relatives and friends.

Temples erected to the worship of this deity are found in every part of the empire, and are numerous, costly, and imposing. The theory of Buddhism requires its temples to be built in retired places among the hills, for the sake of the quiet and seclusion which such places afford. Accordingly, most of the temples connected with this sect, which are not erected in cities and towns for the convenience of the devotees, are found in the most beautiful and romantic situations which the country affords.

Some of the temples have pagodas connected with them, which are towers, of five to seven stories, substantially built of stone or brick. They form a very characteristic and beautiful feature in Chinese landscapes. Many of them show evidences of great antiquity. They

were probably built originally to be the repositories of some valuable relics, or to commemorate some noted person. Occasionally one is found to contain idols. The idols are manufactured of the different metals, or of stone or clay. The largest are made of wood covered with mortar, and gilded on the outside with gold-leaf, and in some cases they are painted in different colors. It is considered essential that all idols, both large and small, should be supplied with artificial entrails which represent the living spirit, without which the god would be regarded as worthless. Sometimes pearls and precious stones, or live snakes or other reptiles, are added, which are lodged in the body through a hole in the back. These images are generally well executed as to their forms. These facts are worthy of notice, as indicative of the character of the people, and the art with which Satan suits the forms of idolatry to the minds of his deluded victims.

The general appearance of the large Buddhist temples is grand and imposing in their architectural taste and skill. They are well proportioned, and in each one the plan of the interior is suited to the size and number of the idols which it is to contain. The large roofs are covered with tiling, said to last more than half a century without repair. The interiors are ornamented with elaborate carvings in wood and stone, and have a great variety of inscriptions on the walls and pillars.

Buddhist priests profess to live on a vegetable diet, which consists principally of red rice, and wear no clothes made of wool or the skins of animals, as they consider it

a crime to take animal life. They also shave the whole head, and wear garments peculiar to their order, consisting of a single blanket wrapped around the body. Many of them have marks burned upon their heads or arms, as the evidence of merit. Some of the younger priests are engaged to a certain extent about the monastery or in tilling the soil, but these duties are for the most part performed by hired laborers, while the priests lead a life of ease and indolence. Some of them spend the most of their lives in the same monastery, and some have a roving propensity, traveling over the greater part of China; they easily beg their way as they go, and find convenient lodgings in the monasteries of their own order. They generally carry with them a passport or introduction from a superior with whom they are acquainted. Without this, however, the laws of their order give them the privilege of stopping at any place for rest and refreshment.

The best recommendation is said to consist in qualifications for earning money. Each monastery is regarded as a large household, and, when priests earn money, part of it is expected to go to the establishment. In consequence of the traveling propensities of these priests, large monasteries present striking instances of the confusion of tongues, and frequently priests of the same order cannot understand each other without a third person to act as interpreter. The number of priests in these establishments varies, often several hundred being placed in the same monastery.

The incomes of monasteries are derived from the voluntary contributions of the people; money paid to the

priests in remuneration for their services at funerals, which goes to their support; and the proceeds of the lands with which many of them have been endowed. The specific duties of the priesthood are chanting, performing different ceremonies in the temples, and begging. The chanting of a regular and formal service is performed morning and evening, and is carried on in connection with the burning of incense and candles, prostration, the beating of drums and bells, and pacing backward and forward, bowing to the idols; the whole performance lasts about an hour. In case a temple or monastery is out of repair, priests are sent to solicit subscriptions from door to door. Wealthy individuals, and sometimes officers, give large sums, influenced partly by a desire to be seen and praised of men, and partly by the hope of securing happiness in a future state.

Connected with most of the large Buddhist temples are some priests distinguished from their class by living in rude huts, or caves among the hills, in the greatest retirement. Their time is principally spent in keeping the taper lighted before their gods, reciting their chants, and cooking their simple meals. While professing to seek this retirement for the sake of meditation, they seem almost to lose their power of thinking. They are in these secluded places supported by the contributions of friends and temple-worshipers, and by supplies from the monastery with which they are connected. It is commonly reported and believed that those who live thus attain to greater longevity, and require very little sustenance to support life.

There are other priests who spend their time in closed rooms or cells; these are connected also with the larger establishments. They commence their secluded life with considerable formality. On an appointed day they enter the room or rooms which are to be their future abode, and all the doors are sealed by numerous strips of paper, on which is written, in large characters, a statement of the day when the confinement commenced, and how long it is to continue. Only one small hole is left in the wall, through which articles are handed in and out. Here the blind devotee immures himself for years, and perhaps for life. Priests sometimes take refuge in the cloistered cells to escape punishment, after having broken their vows by the commission of crimes. Sometimes rich men, who are unwilling to devote themselves to a life of seclusion, pay the priests, and provide them at the same time with food, that they shall offer up prayers in their behalf.

Connected with the religion of Buddhism is a large number of nunneries. With regard to the worship performed in these institutions, and the manner in which they are supported and their affairs conducted, they differ very little from the monasteries. It is said, as regards the character and practices of their inmates, that, with few exceptions, their reputation is far from being above suspicion.

The worshipers in Buddhist temples are for the most part women, and these are generally advanced in age; but the young women, according to the customs of the country, are forbidden to appear in public. The

older women, having but little to do, and reminded by their age of the necessity of preparing for a future state, spend much of their time in the temples. In consequence of the inferior station of women in China, and their peculiar trials, being a woman is regarded as a great misfortune; but they console themselves with the hope that their earnest devotions at the temple, or shrines of Buddha, will gain them the privilege of being changed into men in the future state.

There are twelve or fifteen days in the year on which a small amount of *tich* can be obtained. The women generally get about this number of days yearly, but those detained at home by sickness or other causes are not able to come to the temple on the regular *tich* days. For the consideration of a few small coins the priests allow their names to be enrolled, and they can send for the *tich* at any time and chant over it at home.

On worship-days a great number of women may be seen slowly making their way to their chosen place of devotion. They generally go in small companies, carrying with them a little basket containing candles and incense-sticks. They are always dressed in their best clothes, as it would be considered disrespectful to the gods to appear before them in their every-day apparel; and they hope also, by their dress and behavior, to produce the impression upon the gods that they are persons in better circumstances than they really are.

At the temple the worship is conducted in the following manner: A few candles are lighted and placed before the gods either by the worshiper or priest in

attendance; incense-sticks are also lighted and placed in the large bowl of ashes before each idol, or the one to which the individual expects to pay homage; the design of the worshiper in doing this is to apprise the gods of her presence and intentions. These incense-sticks are about a foot long, and an eighth of an inch in diameter; when the sticks have been lit and properly arranged, the worshiper bows again and again, and at length prostrates herself upon the floor.

Usually large numbers of people may be seen at the Buddhist and other temples on the 1st and 15th of each month, and also on the birthdays of the different gods. Special visits are made for special purposes at all times. Some go to pray for children; some to seek for an omen or ask advice in cases of exigency or perplexity; some to procure medicine for sick persons, and others to make vows. Sometimes, in extreme cases, advice is obtained by the worshiper taking in his hand a little box opened at the top, containing a number of small labeled wooden sticks, which he shakes in front of the idol until one of them falls out. The number written on this stick points out the corresponding slip of paper in a book where the desired answer may be found; this is written in large letters, indicating whether the matter in question will terminate favorably or unfavorably. The same device is used in asking for medicine, though the god interrogated is different, and the slip of paper contains medical prescriptions only. As a general rule, the Chinese have physicians, who are often called to administer to the sick.

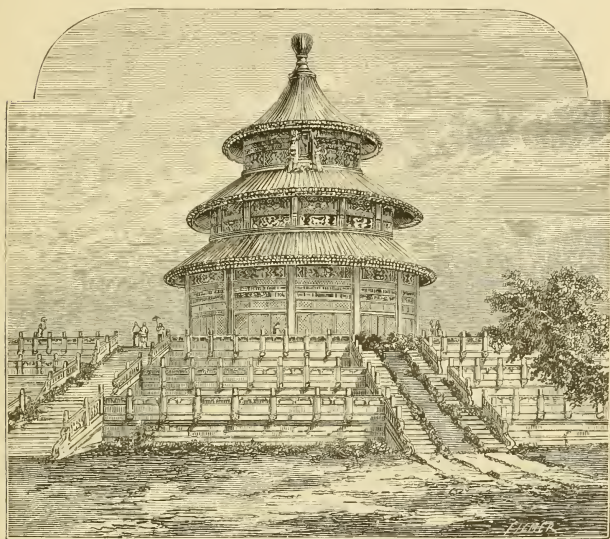
Vows are made in cases of distress and uncertainty;

the person assuming a vow, in order to secure the assistance and protection of some deity, promises to provide something very good for the god to look at, or to feed hungry ghosts, or to furnish new clothes for some idol in the temple. Some of the gods not painted, or covered with gold-leaf, wear a variety of clothes, which are changed with the changing seasons.

Ancestral temples are numerous in China; almost every small village contains one, most of these villages being composed principally of inhabitants of the same name or family. These ancestral temples are the most sacred spots on earth to a Chinaman: here repose the spirits of his ancestors; this is the place for family meetings on sacrificial days; here he expects that his spirit will find its last resting-place, and share in the homage and offerings of future generations. These facts relating to ancestral worship explain the anxiety of the Chinese who visit our Western coast of America to have their bodies carried back to their homes in case of death. They wish their dust to mingle with that of their ancestors, and their spirits to be restored to their ancestral temples, else they would be unhoused, unfed, uncared for—wandering, starving, homeless ghosts in a foreign land, than which condition nothing can be more dreaded by them.

There is another kind of worship practised, that of the kitchen-god so called, which occupies an important place in the national religious rites. This form of idolatry is as ancient as the one just described, and as universal, being practised in every family. The kitchen-god

has no temple, nor images. It is worshiped under the representation of an engraved paper, generally about a foot square, pasted on the kitchen-range. This style of worship may be regarded as the household divinity of China; it is supposed that it takes cognizance of every-



TEMPLE OF HEAVEN.

thing which transpires in the family, and makes a report at the close of the year in the presence of the chief of the gods. On the night when the report is made, all the members of the family are present, and a feast is given for and in honor of the god, intended to induce him to make as favorable a report at headquarters as possible. At the close of the feast the paper-god is removed from

the kitchen-range and burned, and on the first day of the new year a new paper is procured, and the kitchen-god is requested to resume his place in the family!

Another ceremony is performed, called *ying-chun*—the welcoming of spring—which is observed every year on the first day of spring. It is customary for the officers to go out through the east gate of the city, where they find clay images of a ploughman and his ox, which had been previously made for the occasion. They then witness a theatrical performance in the temple of the god of agriculture, which is designed to encourage the people to be industrious in agricultural pursuits, and then the clay images are brought back into the city and worshiped; on the following day they are broken in pieces by the officers. The fragments of these images are highly prized and eagerly sought by the people, who carry them to their homes as a pledge of good luck for the coming season. The design of this ceremony seems to be to inculcate veneration for the ox, and respect for husbandry.

The god of war is everywhere worshiped, and has temples erected to him throughout the empire. During the last civil war in China, the emperor heaped new honors upon him on account of alleged deliverances, but no doubt principally to inspire confidence in the fortunes of his dynasty.

The god of wealth is much regarded, for he has not only large temples erected solely in honor of him, but every shop contains his image, in a little shrine, before which incense is kept continually burning, and many

business houses have this god either over the door or on the sides, to keep away the evil spirit.

In cities and towns men of different classes and occupations have each their own peculiar deities, in addition to those gods which they worship in common with the mass of the people. Scholars worship the god of letters, business men the god of wealth, dealers in medicine the god who discovered medicine, carpenters the god who invented the tools with which they work, sailors the goddess of the seas; and there are other gods too numerous to mention.

In all heathen countries the people indulge in the worship of idols, that which God commanded them not to do. The first allusion in the Bible to idolatry, or idolatrous customs, is in the account of Rachel's stealing her father's images (Genesis xxx. 19). When Moses was in the mount, Aaron, by request of the Israelites, who clamored for some visible shape in which they might worship God, who had brought them up out of Egypt, yielded to the popular cry, and chose as the symbol of deity a calf, one with which they had long been familiar (Exodus xxxii.).

The three principal religions in China, namely, the state, Confucianism, and Buddhism, are not regarded by the people as antagonistic sects. It is said to be very common for the same persons to profess and perform the rites and worship of them all.

Of other religious sects in China the Mohammedans are numerous. They entered China from Arabia in the seventh century, and their number has gradually in-

creased by immigration from Mohammedan states and by natural increase—not by proselytism. Their mosques may be seen in all the large cities.

Buddhism, in numbers, is greater than any other religion in the world. It includes over one-third more than all others together. It prevails not only in China and Japan, but in India, Siberia, and many other countries. According to Hassel, the numerical value of the various important religions of the world may be estimated as follows:

Buddhists	315,000,000
Mohammedans	250,000,000
Christians of all denominations	120,000,000
Confucianists, etc.	111,000,000
Jews	4,000,000
Other numerous sects	100,000,000
Total	900,000,000

The chief step toward Christianizing our world has been taken by opening the Chinese Empire. Throwing open her doors to admit the gospel of Christ to a third of the human race is doubtless one of the greatest among the great events of the present age, and one that should awaken no ordinary interest throughout the Christian world. It is an event in which the hand of God is clearly manifest, preparing the way and leading forward gradually the movement of his kingdom toward the period when the heathen shall be given to the Son for an inheritance, and the uttermost parts of the earth for a possession.

Christianity, in some of its forms, is no new thing in

China. If what can be gathered from ancient writers is reliable, there is a strong probability that the gospel was preached in China, and churches were founded, during the first century of our era. Assemanus, a learned Syrian historian, claims that the apostle Thomas crossed over Persia and India into China, and preached the gospel and founded churches. There are various arguments, collected from learned men, to show that the Christian faith was carried to China by the first teachers of Christianity at an early period. Mosheim says that in the year 300 many Christian deeds were done in China. Chinese history also makes a clear reference to Christianity in that country at this period. On the whole, historic testimony is quite united and strongly in favor of the view that Christian churches were established in China many centuries ago. In the seventh and eighth centuries the Nestorian missions in China were flourishing. This is learned from an inscription upon a remarkable marble tablet discovered in the year 1625, in Segan, the capital of the province of Shen-si, and still to be seen there, which was erected in the year 781. From this inscription it is evident that the Nestorians had made great progress among the Chinese: the Bible, or at least portions of it, was translated, and put in the library of the palace; churches were built, and priests were appointed and supported by command of the Chinese emperors; many men occupying high official stations were the warm friends of the foreign missionaries, and firm adherents and zealous supporters of the faith.

In 845, sixty-four years after the erection of the tablet

alluded to, persecution arose, and by an edict of the emperor the priests that came from Syria, in all numbering nearly a thousand, were ordered to retire to private life. From this time the missions appear to have declined. Still, foreign priests continued for several centuries occasionally to arrive, and churches continued to exist in various parts of the empire, until a fierce persecution arose that scattered the Christians and changed their places of worship into heathen temples. This occurred about the middle of the sixteenth century, when the churches had already become very corrupt and feeble. Since that time, it is not known that a single Nestorian church has existed in the empire.

Roman Catholic missions have also been in operation in China for a long period. Their first mission was commenced by the Franciscans in 1292. They continued their work till the expulsion of the Mongols from the throne of China, in 1368, when their mission was broken up; from this time, for a period of two hundred and thirteen years, we hear no more of the Roman Catholic missions in China. In the year 1581 the Jesuits commenced a mission, which continued to prosper for a period of one hundred and forty-three years, and many churches were established. Since then things have gradually taken a change for the worse, and the missions have suffered frequent and severe persecutions; they have, however, been able to prosecute their work down to the present time.

Protestant missions to the Chinese were commenced in 1807, by the Rev. Robert Morrison, of the London

Missionary Society, who began a mission at Canton. As China was not yet opened to intercourse with the Western world, and the East India Company—which then monopolized the trade with China—was opposed to missions, Mr. Morrison was not at liberty to preach openly; but he held secret meetings with a few natives in his own house, where with locked doors he read and explained the gospel every Lord's day. He labored alone for six years, and was then joined by the Rev. William Milne.

Up to 1841, a period of thirty-five years, fifty-eight missionaries had joined the various missions, of whom only four came direct to Canton; others were stationed at different places. In 1842, when British cannon had opened the long-closed gates of China, missionaries rapidly increased; numbers entered the field, and with great zeal began to lay broad and deep the foundations of their future work. Buildings were erected; schools, printing establishments, and chapels, were opened.

By the treaties of 1860—secured by the second war—ten new ports were opened. At most of these missions were established; day and boarding schools have been extensively maintained; hundreds of native preachers have been trained up in these schools; dispensaries and hospitals have been established at nearly all the free ports, where more than ten thousand patients have annually been treated, and at the same time have been brought under the influence of the gospel; five complete versions of the Bible, and over seven hundred other treatises, have been prepared and circulated in great numbers.

And now, that which should greatly enhance the interest of American Christians in this field is the fact that it is brought so close to them. The construction of the Pacific Railroad, and the Pacific mail-steamship line, have brought China very near to us. Formerly the Flowery Land was at the very ends of the earth; now the facilities for intercommunication have brought her almost to our very doors, and she is beginning to command our attention. Before this new mode of communication was opened, missionaries to China were about five months in reaching their field of labor; now they can reach it in five weeks. Then they had the discomforts of a long sea-voyage around the Cape of Good Hope in a sailing-vessel; but now, in splendid palace and sleeping cars, they cross the continent to San Francisco in a week, and thence in a splendid steamship, with every comfort that can be enjoyed at sea, they can cross the Pacific and reach China in less than a month.

CHAPTER XI.

CHINESE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE Chinese are said to be hospitable and generous; but when under the influence of passion, excited by injustice or insult, quarrels arise in the family or on the streets, in which women often take part. They bluster and threaten in a manner quite frightful to those unaccustomed to them, but seldom come to blows. In cases of deep resentment, the injured party often adopts a singular mode of revenge: instead of killing his antagonist, he determines rather to kill himself. In this way he would fix the stigma of murder upon his adversary, whom the people generally regard as the cause of the crime, and responsible for it. A person under these circumstances sometimes commits suicide by hanging himself in his own house; but the most common mode is to swallow opium, and then hire coolies to carry him to die at the door of his enemy. Their motive in leading to self-destruction lies probably in the hope of having greater advantages for inflicting injury and gaining revenge in the spirit-world than while living in the flesh.

The Chinese costume, of both sexes, is loose and flowing, and with scarcely any change in fashion. The masses of the population wear homespun cotton; the wealthier classes are clad in silks, satins, furs, and other

more costly materials. The dress-makers are men instead of women, and the various trades and occupations are singularly mixed up. The men wear their hair as long as it will grow, and when plaited it often reaches below their knees, while the women carefully braid theirs on and around the head. The men commonly wear a sort of petticoat, or loose garment reaching to the feet, while the women, on the other hand, wear trousers or pantaloons.

The official rank and position of the Chinese are indicated by the color and peculiarities of buttons, feathers, caps, and embroidered work, on their garments; these official badges are much regarded by the people. In meeting with a company of foreigners, they are prone to notice them carefully, to discover by what outward badge or mark their rank is indicated, and are apt to conclude that it is by the variety of caps and hats they wear.

The practice of binding girls' feet is almost universal among the higher classes. It is regarded as a mark of distinction for ladies to have small feet; in every city great numbers of women, perhaps a quarter or more of the female population, may be seen toddling about the streets on their pegs, looking very much as if their feet had been cut off and they were walking on the stumps; it is with the greatest difficulty that they can balance themselves in walking, and many resort to a cane to keep themselves straight. There is a marked difference in the degree in which feet are compressed. Country-women and the poorer classes have feet about half the natural

size, while those of the genteel or fashionable class are only about three inches long. The process of compressing is commenced after girls have learned to walk, and have developed the muscles for locomotion, and generally at the age of five years, when a cotton bandage two or three inches wide is wound tightly around the foot, and from this time the foot ceases to grow; it assumes the shape of an acute triangle, the big toe forming the acute angle, and the other toes being bent under the foot, and almost lost or absorbed. This custom has existed for many centuries, and the Chinese cannot account satisfactorily for its origin. It probably arose from a strife among women for the preëminence of having the smallest feet. The Chinese insist upon it that the custom of compressing women's feet is neither in as bad taste, nor so injurious to the health, as that of foreign ladies compressing the waist.

The Chinese have a custom, quite peculiar to themselves, of ordering their coffins and having them sent home long before they have any thought of dying; they take great pride in selecting the best materials, having them made of thick slabs of wood, good and strong, and, when they can afford it, in the most expensive style, and take great pleasure in showing them to their friends, keeping them where they may be seen by all who call.

Chinese houses are ordinarily furnished with chairs, tables, stands, and bedsteads. When they have company the two sexes eat separately in different rooms, but in ordinary meals different members of the family of both sexes sit down together with much less formality.

On the tables of both rich and poor may be seen a large dish filled with rice; before each chair is placed an empty bowl and two chop-sticks, which are about eight inches long, and resemble somewhat a common penholder; these are made of bamboo or ivory. Each individual at the table takes up the chop-sticks in the right hand, and, holding them between the thumb and fingers in such a manner that the lower ends approach each other like a pair of pincers or tongs, eats comparatively with as much ease as we do with knives and forks.

Beef is never exposed for sale in the Chinese markets. The meat of the few cattle which are used for ploughing is, when they are killed, disposed of principally to foreigners. There is a strong and almost universal prejudice against eating beef. The reason generally given for this prejudice is, that we are so much indebted to the patient labors of the ox and cow for ploughing our fields. Milk is hardly used at all. They eat pork, fowls, eggs, fish, and game. In all the open ports beef and milk are supplied for the use of foreign residents.

During the months of August and September in every year, when diseases are usually prevalent, the people suppose that the gates of hell are opened, and the spirits are turned out for a kind of holiday; at this time they are honored with ceremonies performed throughout the country. The object of these ceremonies is to avert the evil, and secure health and peace to the afflicted families. Quantities of food are prepared which are set on tables in an open place or court; clothes of

paper of different sizes, styles, and colors, are suspended over the table, and a company of priests and singers is employed to add variety and noise to the entertainment. After dark, lanterns are suspended from high poles to call the spirits from a distance and indicate to them where food can be found. This food is of a very inferior quality, and, after the feast is over, given to beggars. It is supposed that the charms of the priests have the power to convert both the food and the paper clothes into just what is required to satisfy the wants of those for whom they were intended.

Weddings in China are celebrated with a great deal of formality and expense. Betrothals are generally contracted at a very early age; persons of the same family name are never betrothed, however distant the relationship. The work is done in most cases by a class of women called go-betweens or match-makers. They are a class employed at weddings and funerals in superintending the toilet and affording assistance. They go about constantly from family to family, and are familiarly acquainted with every one in the neighborhood, and suggest to parents where they may find girls who would make a desirable match for their sons. These women form the medium for carrying on communication between the two families. It would be regarded as improper and indelicate for the parents to arrange the matter themselves. The betrothal is consummated by the exchange of presents and the making over to the parents of the groom a formal document or agreement. The relation of husband and wife is thus constituted,

and the engagement is regarded as sacred and binding as if the marriage had been performed ; but the wedding in many cases does not take place until several years after, for children are generally betrothed at an early age, from five to seven, and some older, and married at the age agreed upon by the parents.

When a Chinaman meets a person whom he intends to salute, instead of taking him by the hand and giving it a shake, as with us, he shakes his own hands, putting them together and moving them up and down. On coming into your presence he never thinks of raising his hat or cap or whatever he may wear, although he may remove his shoes. If a Chinaman wishes to do you special honor, instead of placing you at his right hand, you will have a seat or standing-place on his left. When invited to a feast or other entertainment, the men and women, although invited together, do not eat in company, but occupy separate rooms.

The language of China is another peculiarity. It is said the spoken language is never written, and the written language is never spoken ; so that one may be familiar with Chinese books, and not understand anything of the conversation of the people. In reading a book, they commence at the top of the page and go to the bottom, instead of across the page, as we do ; the lines running downward, numbering from right to left. The title of the book is on the side of the page instead of the top, and the contents of the chapter at the end instead of the beginning.

The first thing which attracts attention in the list of

trade with China is the opium-traffic. The Opium War and the present opium-trade is a dark blot upon the history of the British Government. No one can visit China without witnessing the evil effects of opium on the multitudes of miserable victims which it is daily depriving of mental and physical vigor, and consigning to the grave; no one can read the humble words in which the Chinese commissioners have besought the British representatives not to force this destructive drug upon the nation; no one can recall the heartless manner in which such appeals were answered with threats, and afterward with broadsides from vessels-of-war, until the way was made open for the wholesale introduction of opium in all parts of the empire—which course, on the part of the British authorities, had a powerful tendency to retard the Christian mission-work, and check the progress of religion—without feelings of the deepest indignation.

Opium to a small extent has been cultivated in China for several centuries, but only for its medical properties. Since its introduction from India, the plant has become an article of culture in many parts of the empire. It is said that in Persia, India, and China, millions of people are employed in the cultivation of the poppy.

The preparation of opium for the Chinese market is superintended by examiners appointed by the Government, and is a business of some difficulty, owing to the many devices employed by the manufacturers for its adulteration and to increase its weight: mixing with water, soft clay, sugar, powdered cow-dung, and many

other things, are resorted to. When the juice is taken from the cultivator, the crude mass undergoes a careful examination, and is rolled into small balls, with a covering of opium mixed with the leaves of the poppy. The juice, when properly prepared and dried, is of the consistency of thick mortar and of a yellow color.

The Chinese do not raise enough opium for home consumption, and a very large quantity is brought from India. Nearly all the opium grown in India is brought to Calcutta and stored in Government warehouses, until exposed for sale at auction in lots from five chests each, at an upset price graduated by the market rate in China. It is supposed to cost about seven hundred rupees a chest, and is sold for one thousand rupees and upward, yielding an immense profit to the British Government. Before marketing the drug is rolled into small balls, and then packed in strong boxes weighing one hundred and twenty-five pounds each.

Thousands and tens of thousands of the Chinese people annually die from the evil effects of opium. Various means have been tried by the benevolent men of the nation to dissuade their countrymen from its use, by distributing tracts showing its ruinous effects, and compounding medicines for the smoker to take, to aid him in breaking off the habit, and denouncing the smoking-shops, etc.

The opium-pipe consists of a tube or stem, of bamboo, from three to four feet long, furnished at the end with a little cup of earthenware, which rests upon a small lamp or furnace filled with coals, upon which the bowl of the

pipe rests. A small piece of opium, not much larger than a pea, is put upon the hole of the bowl, set on fire by the lamp or coals, and inhaled by one whiff, so that none of the smoke shall be lost. Old smokers will retain the breath a long time, filling the lungs and exhaling the fumes through the nose. It is said that, after the smoker has finished his pipe, he falls into a deep sleep of from one to four hours' duration.

In walking through the streets of Canton I saw, in many of the stores and shops, persons sitting flat upon the floor with the feet curled under their bodies, with their pipes resting upon a small furnace of coals, smoking; the sidewalks are also used for the same purpose. They commonly lie or sit down to smoke, and often two or three persons smoke from the same pipe, first one and then the other taking a whiff.

The testimony regarding the evil effects of the use of this pernicious drug, which deserves better to be called an article of destruction than one of luxury, should be well pondered by all who feel an interest in our fallen race of humanity. Dr. Smith, a physician in charge of one of the hospitals, says that the poisonous effects of this habit on the human constitution are particularly displayed by stupor, forgetfulness, general debility of both the mental and physical faculties, sallow complexion, dullness of the eye, and the appetite either destroyed or depraved. These symptoms appear when the habit has weakened the physical powers; even the ordinary smoker soon becomes languid, being disabled mentally more than bodily from carrying on his ordinary

pursuits. A dose of opium does not produce the intoxication of ardent spirits, and, so far as the community and his family are concerned, the smoker is less troublesome than the drunkard, for he never throws the chairs and tables about the room, nor breaks the furniture, as the drunkard may; he never drives his wife out-of-doors in his furious rage, nor goes reeling through the streets, nor takes lodgings in the gutter, but after smoking he is inclined to go to sleep, and he awakes quietly.

A Chinese scholar thus sums up the bad effects of opium, which he says is taken at first to raise the animal spirits. On the contrary, he affirms that it depresses the spirits, impedes the regular performance of business, wastes the flesh and blood, dissipates every kind of property, renders the victim prone to violate the laws, attacks the vitals, and destroys life. Under each of these heads he shows the mode of the process, or gives examples to uphold his assertions in regard to its destructive action on the human system. Compared with arsenic, I pronounce it tenfold the greater poison. One swallows arsenic, because he has lost his reputation and from other causes; thus driven to desperation, he takes the dose and is destroyed at once. But those who smoke opium are injured in many ways; it may be compared to raising the wick of a lamp: while it increases the blaze, it hastens the exhaustion of the oil and the extinction of the light. Hence the youth who becomes addicted to opium-smoking will shorten his own days and cut off all hopes of posterity. From the most robust who indulge in smoking, the flesh is gradually consumed and worn

away, and the countenance becomes haggard and dark-looking. The habitual smoker will often spend days over his pipe, for when the desire of opium comes on he cannot resist the temptation. It is said that poor men



OPIUM-SMOKERS.

who are addicted to this vice, after having pawned every article in their possession for the purchase of the debasing drug, have even pawned their wives and sold their daughters!

The evils suffered and crimes committed by these desperate victims of the opium-pipe are fearful and multiplied: theft, arson, murder, and suicide, are perpetrated in order to obtain the drug; and, from its dreadful consequences, some try to break off the fatal habit by drinking a tincture of the opium-drug in spirits, gradually diminishing its strength until the appetite for the stimulant is overcome. Others mix opium with tobacco, and smoke the compound in a gradually reduced proportion, until tobacco alone remains in the pipe. By this method some smokers have lost the appetite for opium. The general belief is that the vice can be overcome without fatal results, if the smoker firmly resolves to forsake it, and keeps away from the sight and smell of the pipe, keeping as much as possible in the open air until he recovers his spirits, and no longer feels a longing for it; but very few have nerve enough to emancipate themselves from the tyrannous and soul-killing habit which enslaves them. But it happens unto them according to the true proverb: "The dog is turned to his own vomit again; and the sow that was washed to her wallowing in the mire" (2 Peter ii. 22).

The Chinese Government is one of the great wonders of history. It presents to us to-day the same character which it possessed at its foundation, at least three thousand years ago, and which it has retained ever since.

A prominent English writer, in speaking of the Chinese executive system, characterizes it as one of the most gigantic and the most minutely organized in the world.

The character of the Government is patriarchal, and assumed its present form at a very early age, when the Chinese race was divided into petty kingdoms and principalities. As the empire grew in territory and population, the fundamental principle was retained.

The emperor is called the Son of Heaven, who exercises supreme control over the whole empire, because Heaven has empowered and required him to do so. His patriarchal character, while it confers on him absolute sovereignty, imposes also the obligation to treat his people with justice and sympathy. It is said that he lives in unapproachable grandeur, and is never seen except by members of his own family and high state officers; nothing is omitted which can add to the dignity and sacredness of his person or character, and almost everything used by him is held sacred by the common people, and distinguished by some peculiar mark or color, so as to keep up the impression of awe with which he is regarded. The outer gate of the palace must always be passed on foot, and the paved entrance leading up to it can only be used by him and the high officers of state.

The throne is not strictly hereditary, though the oldest son of the emperor generally succeeds to it. The emperor appoints his successor, but it is supposed that, in doing so, he will have supreme regard for the best good of his subjects, and will be governed by the will of Heaven.

In governing so large a realm it is found necessary for the emperor to delegate his authority to numerous officers, who are regarded as his agents and represent-

atives in carrying out the imperial will; what they do the emperor does through them.

The cabinet consists of four principal and two joint assistant chancellors, half of them Mantchoos and half Chinese. Their duties, according to the imperial statutes, are to deliberate on the government of the empire, regulate the canons of state, together with the whole administration of the balance of power, and aid the emperor in directing the affairs of state. Subordinate to these six chancellors are also six other grades of officers, amounting in all to several hundred persons.

The general council is composed of princes of the blood, of the chancellors' cabinet, the presidents and vice-presidents of the six boards, and chief officers of all the other courts in the capital. Its duties are to write imperial edicts and decisions, and determine such things as are of importance to the army and nation, in order to aid the sovereign in regulating the machinery of state affairs. It is principally by means of this council that the emperor, and his immediate advisers, become acquainted with and control those who are engaged in different departments of the Government.

There are three subordinate grades of officers in each board, who may be called directors, with a great number of minor clerks. The details of all the departments, in the general and provincial governments, are regulated in the same manner.

When Confucius began to teach his doctrines, he referred to the ancient kings and their conduct, both for proof of the correctness of his instructions, and for argu-

ments to enforce them. It shows that his countrymen assented to their propriety from the large number of disciples he had in his lifetime, and the high character he bore, but it was not till after two or three centuries had elapsed that the rulers of China perceived that the adoption and diffusion of these doctrines would give them sway; they therefore began to embody them more and more into laws, and base the institutions of government upon them, and, through all the convulsions and wars which have disturbed the country and changed the reigning families, the writings of Confucius have done more than anything else to uphold the institutions of the Chinese, and give them a character and permanence which no other people ever had. Education, as well as political economy, being founded on them, students have ever been taught to receive and reverence them as the oracles of political wisdom.

But this civilization is Asiatic and not European, pagan and not Christian. The institutions of China are despotic and defective, and founded on wrong principles; they may possess the elements of stability, but not of improvement. The patriarchal theory does not make men honorable, truthful, or kind; it does not place woman in her right position, that to which she is entitled, nor teach her millions of inhabitants their obligations to their Creator.

A cursory inspection will show that the great leading principles by which the present Chinese Government preserves its power over the people consist in a system of strict surveillance and mutual responsibility among

all classes. They are enforced by such a minute gradation of rank and subordination of officers as to give the Government essentially a military character, and the whole system is such as to make it one of the most unmixed despotisms now existing. It is said to be like a network, extending over the whole face of society. The man who knows that it is almost impossible, except by entire seclusion, to escape from the company of secret agents of the Government, will be cautious of offending the laws of the country, convinced that, though he should himself escape, yet his family or kindred will suffer for his offense.

CHAPTER XII.

CHINESE INDUSTRY.

AGRICULTURE, of all manual labor, holds the first place in the honor and estimation of the Chinese, not alone as providing a regular supply of food for so large a population, but also in meeting the wants of the Government by taxation; and long experience has taught them that an agricultural community is more easily governed than a mercantile or warlike one.

Landed property is held in clans or families as much as possible, but it is not entailed, nor are very large estates frequent. The land is held as a freehold so long as the sovereign receives his rent, which is estimated at about one-tenth of the produce; and the proprietors record their names in the district magistrate's office as responsible for the tax, feeling themselves secure in the possession while the tax is paid. The paternal estate, and the houses upon it, descend to the eldest son. Daughters never inherit, nor can an adopted son succeed, or enter into possession.

It is said that the Chinese are rather gardeners than farmers. Their agricultural utensils are few and simple, and are probably now made similar to those used centuries ago: the edge of the large wooden hoe is faced with iron; the plough is made of wood, excepting the

share, which is of iron, and lies so flat that it cannot penetrate the ground but a few inches; the harrow is a heavy stick armed with a single row of stout wooden teeth, and furnished with a framework of a triangular form, on which the driver sits to guide it.

Wheat, barley, millet, and rice, are planted in rows, which is thought to produce better crops than when sown broadcast. Our American farmers would despair if they were obliged to transplant wheat, barley, and rice crops from bed to bed, and spear by spear; they would be discouraged if even they had to water it once or twice during its growth. It would be left to rot in the field if they were denied a reaper, or at least a cradle or scythe; it would waste in the barn or stack if they could not procure a thrashing-machine or fanning-mill. Here, on the other hand, each blade of grain is removed to a new bed, and, from its planting until its ripening, it is watered once a day. When it is gathered, the seeds are separated from the husk by hand; notwithstanding this vast labor, rice is the chief production, and the principal food of all the Asiatic races, constituting more than one-half the population of the globe.

The plan of irrigation is simple, but it requires an immense amount of labor and toil. In some places pools are made in level fields to receive the water, which is lifted from deep wells by means of a sweep or heavy pole stationed upon a long post set in the ground; the sweep is balanced by a weight on one end, and the bucket on the other. By this method water is rapidly drawn and poured into little furrows, through which it

finds its way over the ground. Wheels of various sorts are also contrived to draw water, some worked by human toil and others by cattle. The wheel is erected in a frame, some five or six feet above the top of the well, with a rope sufficiently long to reach the bottom, and reeved through a wheel; on one end of the rope is fastened a large leather bucket, and to the other the cattle are attached. By this method of drawing water three persons are required, two to handle the bucket and one to drive the team. There is another peculiar arrangement by which they draw water, which consists of a kind of a box-trough with an axle, two men turning with their feet, as if in a tread-mill, and is commonly used for slight elevations. The chain of paddles revolves around two axles—one at the bottom of the well and one at the top; in construction it resembles a flour-elevator, and raises the water in the same manner. Comparatively few animals, with carts, are used to convey water upon the land. A more common plan of irrigation is to take advantage of a natural brooklet flowing down a hill-side, and conduct the water from one plat to another till it has flowed over the whole. It is where such water-privileges offer that the terrace cultivation is often seen. The appearance of a hill-side thus graduated into small ledges is beautiful to look upon; each plat is divided by a bank, serving the triple purpose of fence, path, and dike; wherever the soil is not watered the vegetation is languid, and often dead.

The buffalo is most used in the rice-fields, and the ox and the ass in dry ploughing; horses, mules, cows, and

even goats, likewise render service to the farmer in various ways, and the different animals I have often seen yoked together. The Chinese manure the plant rather than the ground. The manure is gathered where cows have been, made into flat cakes, and plastered upon some of the houses in country towns to dry, and is afterward piled in cords; whether it was being prepared for the ground, or for some other purpose, I was at a loss to know. I saw it not only in China, but also in Japan and India, giving employment to thousands of people. We saw it plastered up both on the common country-houses and on fences. In addition to these flat cakes, plastered up in every conceivable place, other substances are gathered, as hair from the barbers'-shops, exploded fire-crackers, sweepings from the streets, lime and plaster from old buildings, soot, bones, fish, leaves, and the mud from the bottom of canals, which are decomposed and used for fertilizing the soil; vegetable rubbish is also collected in piles, covered with turf, and then burned.

The ripe grain is commonly cut with bill-hooks, or pulled up by the roots; scythes and cradles are not in use. Rice-straw is made into brooms and brushes. The rice-heads are stripped from the straw, and put into a large stone vessel and pounded with billets of wood to disconnect the hulls from the grain. Some of the larger farmers have thrashing-floors, which are made of a mixture of sand and cement, well pounded, upon an inclined surface inclosed by a curb; this, with proper care, it is said, will last for many years, and is used in some of the larger villages for thrashing out peas, rice, and mustard-

seed. The great cotton district is the valley of the Yang-tse-kiang River, and the two varieties, white and yellow, grow side by side. After the cotton has been gathered and housed, the seeds are separated by a wheel turning two rollers, and the cotton is then sold by each farmer to merchants in the towns, a portion being kept for weaving at home. Spinning-wheels and looms are common articles of furniture in the houses of the Chinese peasantry.

Many plants are cultivated for their oil, to be used in the arts as well as in cooking. The tallow-tree, common all over the eastern part of China, is, when fully grown, a beautiful tree. The seeds are formed in clusters like small berries, and when ripe are covered with pure white tallow; the whole is then sifted on a hot sieve, by which process the tallow is separated from the kernels. The candles made from the substance procured from the tallow-tree are said to be of an excellent quality. The camphor-tree is also found in China, and affords both timber and gum. The tree grows very large, and furnishes excellent planks and beams for building houses and vessels, and making trunks and other articles. Foreigners, in visiting China, frequently purchase trunks made of camphor-wood. I bought two trunks, with brass trimmings, about three feet long, eighteen inches high, and twenty inches in width, which cost two dollars apiece. I filled them with china-ware, and made a special shipment of them by a sailing-vessel to America. The cassia-tree also grows in this country, and its dried bark affords the principal part of that spice used in the

United States. It is said that the bark is stripped from the twigs by running a knife along the branches and gradually loosening it, and it is then dried into quill-shaped rolls, in which form it comes to market. The pulpy substance which is found in the pods is also collected, and sold under the name of cassia-buds, being applied to the same purposes as the bark.

Among the industrial arts of the Chinese, the manufacturing of silk and embroidery is a specialty. Raw silk is an article of sale in the market of Canton, and is largely exported to foreign countries to be woven into cloth. The loom in China is worked by two persons, one of whom sits on top of the frame, where he pulls the treadles and assists in changing the various parts of the machine. The workmen imitate almost any pattern, excelling particularly in crapes, and flowered satins and damasks. Silk in China is only worn by the higher class; the common people wear pongee and nankeen, which they frequently dye black or blue.

The skill of the Chinese in embroidering is well known the world over, and the demand for such work, to ornament furniture, adorn ladies' dresses, for embellishing purses, shoes, caps, fans, and other appendages of the dress of both sexes, and for working shawls, table-covers, etc., for exportation, furnishes employment to thousands of both men and women. In many of the stores in Canton I saw the occupants sitting flat upon the floor working upon a small frame, with the cloth stretched out upon it. All the work is done by the needle, without the aid of machinery. Books are pre-

pared for the use of embroiderers, containing patterns for them to imitate. Gold and silver thread is occasionally added to impart a lustre to the figures on caps, purses, and ladies' shoes. A branch of the embroiderer's art consists in the formation of tassels and twisted cords; spangles are also made by this branch in every possible shape and form. The mode of embroidery seems to have been known among the Hebrews, and even among the Israelites, where it is spoken of in Exodus xxxv. 35: "Them hath he filled with wisdom of heart, to work all manner of work, of the engraver, and of the cunning workman, and of the embroiderer, in blue, and in purple, in scarlet, and in fine linen."

The Chinese are not entirely ignorant of the laws of Moses, and of the prophets; but of Christ, and the teachings of his glorious gospel, they have but little or no knowledge. Almost the last words uttered by the lips of our Saviour when he was upon earth, were, "Go ye into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature." Shortly after his ascension his principal disciples branched off from Jerusalem, some to the north, to the south, to the west, and to the east; but how little has been done for the salvation of China, compared with what remains to be done! The labor hitherto has been chiefly preparatory; the time has now arrived for putting forth direct efforts on a large scale for the evangelization of the people. This enterprise demands comprehensive views and plans; a large amount of faith, prayer, zeal, liberal giving, and a greater number of laborers.

CHAPTER XIII.

HONG-KONG TO CEYLON.

December 6th.—The climate of Hong-Kong is considered superior to that of most other places situated within the tropics. It is generally healthy as a residence for foreigners, but it has obtained a bad reputation from the numerous deaths occurring in 1842, at which time a large part of the population died. Subsequent years, however, have shown that, with proper care, avoiding the sun in the heat of the day and keeping out of the evening dews, as good a degree of health can be enjoyed here as in most other places. The thermometer during the winter months stands on an average at from 50° to 60° , and in the summer months at 80° to 90° . But at Canton, which is situated farther north, the weather is at least ten degrees colder.

December 7th.—Inasmuch as the island of Hong-Kong is so rough and mountainous, supplies are chiefly brought from the mainland opposite, where the country is very productive, and ample demand is made for all the provisions it can furnish. Three or four newspapers are published here. There are several flourishing institutions, namely, the Medical Missionary Society, the Seamen's and Military Hospitals, the chapel and school of the London Missionary Society; the Government-House,

jail, and exchange, are among the principal edifices in the town.

December 8th.—The English Governor has established a system of schools of different grades in Hong-Kong. These schools are well conducted, and mostly filled with Chinese scholars, who are taught both in English and Chinese literature. To-day, among other things, we purchased a pair of Chinese vases, and made a special shipment of them through the house of Russell & Co., by the sailing-ship Pilgrim, which is expected to arrive in New York in about four months from this date.

December 9th.—To-day, at twelve o'clock, we take passage at Hong-Kong on the English mail-ship Golconda, Captain Anderson, for Ceylon, stopping at Singapore and Penang; sailing distance thirty-one hundred and thirty-five miles, fare one hundred and seventy-five dollars each. The Golconda is built of iron, of two thousand tons' capacity, propelled by a stern-screw, and full rigged, belonging to the fleet of the Peninsula & Oriental Company. We have in company fourteen first-class passengers, among whom are Sir Edward Dilks and Mr. Fowler, members of the British Parliament. About two hours after leaving port our ship is ploughing through the China Sea, with all sail set, running before a stiff monsoon.

December 10th.—China Sea. Weather clear, wind northeast. Thermometer 75° . Course south by west; latitude $18^{\circ} 11'$ north, longitude $113^{\circ} 49'$ east. Distance run, from yesterday 12 m. up to 12 m. to-day, two hun-

dred and forty-six miles. We have been running since leaving port under full sail before the monsoon, which may be called the trade-wind. The monsoon has a velocity of from seven to eight knots, and is said to blow constantly both up and down the China Sea—from March to November from the equator, and the following six months toward the equator—and it generally extends about a thousand miles on each side of the equator, and *vice versa*.

A few remarks on the marine barometer may be useful. It is said that there is no part of the world where this valuable instrument acts so truly as near the equator, for it gives certain indications of approaching gales by a rapid fall of the mercury, and it often does this when the weather is perfectly clear and without a visible cloud. It is closely watched by the ship's officers, and its warnings are never disregarded.

December 11th.—China Sea. Weather clear. Thermometer 78°. Course south by west; latitude 14° 20' north, longitude 111° 41' east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and seventy-two miles. Ship under full sail, running before the monsoon. The China Sea is very difficult to navigate. Captain Anderson is a faithful officer, and was all last night upon the bridge on the lookout for sunken reefs, and yet we are over one hundred miles from land. Many sailing-ships have been wrecked on these blind ledges of rocks. We are now not far from the Philippine Islands.

December 12th.—China Sea. This being the Sabbath, divine service was omitted on account of the heavy sea.

Weather clear. Thermometer 77° . Course south by west; latitude $10^{\circ} 13'$ north, longitude $109^{\circ} 28'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and eighty-three miles; ship running under full press of canvas before the monsoon. This afternoon we spoke an American merchantman, under reefed topsails, homeward bound laden with tea.

December 13th.—China Sea. Weather clear. Thermometer 80° . Course south by west, and ship running before the monsoon under fore and main topsails; sea high, and occasionally one sweeps the decks. Latitude $6^{\circ} 1'$ north, longitude $104^{\circ} 44'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., three hundred and three miles.

December 14th.—China Sea. Weather rainy. Thermometer 81° . Course south by west, and ship scudding under fore and main topsails; sea running very high, and at intervals a heavy wave comes bounding over the quarter-deck, the passengers running hither and thither, some grasping the rigging, others holding fast to stanchions to keep on their feet; and, while taking dinner, the ship gave a lee-lurch, as old sailors call it, when the dishes and crockery upon the table collided and broke up like pipe-stems. We arrive at Singapore about midnight, having been five and a half days on the passage from Hong-Kong, and without regret we say farewell to the China Sea. Captain Anderson informs us that our passage was a favorable one, having had the monsoon with us; but that in going up the sea, against both wind and current, the voyage is much longer, and often the waters more turbulent.

December 15th.—Singapore is an island, about sixty miles in circumference, situated near the mainland, and its southern border is about thirty miles north of the equator. It has a population of one hundred and sixty-five thousand, which is rapidly increasing. The harbor is excellent for shipping, being land-locked on every side



SINGAPORE.

by high bluffs. The steamship companies have good docks erected, on which is a large supply of coals piled up and housed over. Singapore is a coaling-depot for all steamers, and the coal is brought mostly from England around by the way of the Cape of Good Hope in sailing-ships. It is in reality the touching-place for all

steamers which pass through the straits of Malacca, or from whatever quarter they may come. Constant communication is kept up with the rest of the world by almost daily arrivals of both steam and sailing ships. Singapore is an English colony, and is not an undesirable place for residence, being on the great highway of the nations east and west. Its chief attractions consist in its delightful climate and its rare productions. It enjoys perpetual summer, and the atmosphere being moistened by the sea-breeze, and the frequent showers with which it is visited at all seasons, the heat is never oppressive, the thermometer seldom rising above 90° and rarely going below 70° . The island itself surpasses, in the variety and richness of its vegetable growth, all my expectations. In riding through the country, we pass over delightful macadamized roads, made at the expense of the English colonists, overshadowed by the growth of large evergreen trees. The pineapple grows here with great luxuriance, the fruit of enormous size, the largest of which can be bought for one dollar a hundred; the banana is also very plentiful, and almost every other kind of fruit and nut of a tropical nature grows here. One of the most conspicuous trees upon the island is the fan-palm, which is a large tree, straight as a reed; the top is in the shape of a fan, as flat as if it had been placed in a press, while the circle of the leaves alone on the larger trees is at least twenty feet in diameter, and resembles the tail of a peacock when fully spread. We rode out to the botanical garden or park, which is well laid out and kept filled with a great variety of trees and

plants from different climes. One cannot go amiss in Singapore in looking over this beautiful island, which is covered with what seems a spontaneous growth of all that is graceful and attractive in verdure and vegetation. The jungle and the forest abound in different kinds of birds of the richest plumage, tribes of monkeys chatter among the branches of the trees, and occasionally a tiger makes his appearance, when hard pressed for something to eat, but we were not fortunate enough to see one of this ferocious tribe.

Singapore for its size has a more mixed population than any other city in the world, almost every nation being represented, but the Malays are the most numerous. Here we saw humanity in its primitive state: some of the natives were as naked as when they were born, while others wore only a thin piece of muslin cloth, a few inches in width, across the loins. The costume of the ordinary (or probably lower) class of females consisted of a loose skirt of Turkish red, with a thin white or yellow shawl thrown carelessly over one shoulder; they were bareheaded and barefooted, with rings upon their toes and bracelets around the ankles, three rings in each ear, and one ring, about the size in circumference of a silver dollar, in the nose, and having their long, black, glossy hair trimmed with rich ornaments. In stature they are under the ordinary size, with small features, mild countenances, and are rather an attractive race of people, nearly as dark as the negro. These people seemingly live a life of idleness; it costs them little or nothing for clothing, and Nature has abundantly supplied them with

all the spices, nuts, and delicious fruits imaginable, which require little or no cultivation; and their rivers and bays are filled with a variety of fine fish, which are taken either with the hook and line or the net, with the least possible labor. The dense forests abound in wild game, which is tame compared with that in civilized countries, for the natives use no fire-arms; all wild game is taken by snares, traps, nets, and the bow and arrow. By the common people very little regard is paid to the cultivation of the soil.

Singapore was once a very important missionary station, not so much, however, in its relation to the permanent population of the place as on account of its offering an opportunity to exert an influence upon China and other neighboring countries. It served as a foothold, or standing-place, on which to operate while the Celestial Empire was closed to foreigners. At one time there were as many as thirty missionaries upon this island, but just as soon as the Chinese Empire was thrown open the force moved on, and now there are only some two or three remaining.

The European dwellings in the city do not materially differ from those in the Chinese concessions, while the huts of the natives, in some places, are raised on stakes four or five feet above the ground, for the purpose of drainage, and for better security against poisonous reptiles and beasts of prey.

December 16th. — There are one or two very good hotels in Singapore. The Hôtel de l'Europe is handsomely situated on the margin of the bay, overlooking

the shipping in the harbor. Very good rooms can be obtained at three dollars per day; but, during our stay of two days, we preferred to stop overnight on shipboard, where we had excellent accommodations, Captain Anderson doing everything possible for the comfort and enjoyment of his passengers. We devoted some time to shopping, occasionally buying small articles of native manufacture. Some of the stores were filled with rare curiosities. Just before our ship sailed, scores of the natives came on board offering canes, embroidery-work, sea-shells, and a variety of other things, for sale, for which they at first often asked more than double what they would finally take.

At four o'clock in the afternoon the ship's moorings are cast off from the dock, and in a few moments we are steaming out of the harbor, passing through groups of smaller islands clad with brushwood and green foliage, and occasionally gardens of vegetation most beautiful to behold, and hundreds of boats filled with men and women taking fish. After leaving this small cluster of islands we enter the straits of Malacca, through which channel all ships sailing by the way of the Cape of Good Hope go to China. The British Government has, with its usual sagacity, secured the ancient town of Malacca on the Malay Peninsula. The straits are four hundred miles long, and here about seven miles wide, but in some places more than twice this width.

December 17th.—We were all day passing through the Malacca Straits; the weather is most delightful, and the sea as smooth as a pond. In looking through the

glass we could see the mainland of Malacca on one side, and the island of Sumatra on the other. Through the day we passed quite a number of large ships.

December 18th.—This morning early we arrive at Penang, having been fully forty hours on our passage from Singapore. The native boats made a raid upon the passengers by the time the ship's anchor touched bottom; we finally secured a small boat and went on shore, where we found carriages in readiness to convey the passengers either to the hotels or over the island. We hired a conveyance, and rode out to the mountains; here we saw a waterfall, which the natives consider the most interesting natural curiosity in the island. This cascade has its source from the summit of the mountains, some two thousand feet above the sea. After making a considerable ascent, we reached a brawling torrent, and followed its bank under the shade of palm and spice trees till we came to a small Hindoo temple, adorned with a rustic veranda of palm-bushes, but looking rather dilapidated in consequence of its great antiquity. Here we were welcomed by the Brahman priest, who expected a little money to assist in keeping the temple in repair. We rested a while under a shade-tree, and then our valet conducted us to an adjoining wood to gather nutmegs and cloves. Ascending from here some two or three hundred feet, over natural stone steps, we came to the basin into which the torrent plunges, for a hundred feet or more, breaking into sparkling jets as it dashes against the granite rocks. Descending to the plain, where we had left our carriage, we found that our attendants had

spread upon a table boiled chickens, boiled eggs, and cold ham, for those who wished a good lunch.

Penang is an island, situated about a mile from the mainland, and is about the size of Staten Island in the bay of New York. It is broken and mountainous; some parts are heavily timbered, and the brushwood so thick that it cannot be penetrated. Here we had pointed out to us the snake-grass, which is a small spear, and on which the snakes subsist. It is said that this island abounds with serpents and other reptiles of a dangerous character. A snake twenty-six feet in length was captured in the jungle last week, and some have been taken much larger.

On all these islands near the equator there is a great amount of rainfall. When the sunny sky is perfectly clear, drops of rain will come down of the size of peas, and then it will stop for the space of a few hours. In consequence of the hot weather, shrubbery, vegetation, and wooded thickets, grow much more thriftily than in colder climates.

The city of Penang is even more beautiful, at least some parts of it, than Singapore, and the country assumes the same luxuriant, tropical appearance, abounding in spice, palm, and cocoanut groves. Just across the river from here, about one mile distant on the mainland, there is a fearful war raging between the English colonists and the natives. After rambling all the forenoon we returned on board quite fatigued, but what we had seen was most interesting.

At four o'clock in the afternoon we resume our jour-

ney, *en route* for Ceylon. As we are steaming out of the harbor we pass by a large emigrant-ship, loaded with coolies, supposed to be bound for the West Indies. The weather is clear, and the sea smooth.

December 19th.—This morning we find ourselves on the great Indian Ocean. This being the Sabbath, divine service was administered in the English form by Captain



NATIVE OF SAIGON.

Grant, one of the passengers, of the English Royal Navy. On shipboard, in the English Navy, the administration of divine service, at least once on every Sabbath, is made a compulsory duty.

Last evening we passed over the ninety-eighth meridian of east longitude, which brings us on a direct line over the city of New York. The sky is clouded over and at intervals raining; wind light. Thermometer 76° .

Ship's course west by north; latitude $5^{\circ} 59'$ north, longitude $96^{\circ} 44'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and thirty-two miles. This morning early, while Mrs. Winants was dressing, she ordered the side-port connected with the state-room to be opened, in order to obtain fresh air, and a few moments after one single sea rushed through and completely flooded the room. Toward evening we are in sight of the island of Sumatra, upon which war is and has been raging for the last two years, between the Dutch colonists and the natives. From reports received the Dutch are getting the worst of the fight.

December 20th.—Indian Ocean. The weather is most delightful, with little or no wind, and the ocean is as smooth as glass. Thermometer 84° . Course west; latitude $6^{\circ} 5'$ north, longitude $91^{\circ} 44'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and ninety-eight miles. Our crew of sailors and waiters are Malays; they run up the rigging as quickly as monkeys, and are ready at every call. Captain Anderson said that he preferred them to English seamen, being more easily managed, but they cannot endure a cold climate.

December 21st.—Indian Ocean. The weather is clear and charming, and the sea is as smooth as a mirror. Thermometer 82° . Course west; latitude 6° north, longitude $86^{\circ} 48'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and ninety-nine miles.

December 22d.—Indian Ocean. Weather very fine, wind light from the northwest, and sea smooth. Thermometer 82° . Course west; latitude $6^{\circ} 7'$ north, longi-

tude $82^{\circ} 21'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and sixty-six miles.

December 23d.—This morning early we arrive at Point de Galle, Ceylon, having been fourteen days on our passage from Hong-Kong. Here we are again surrounded by the native boatmen. Their boats are different from any that I have yet seen; the boat itself is some twenty feet long, and only two feet in width, and about as deep, canoe model, and with two poles about six feet long running across the boat, one forward, the other astern, attached to a log of the length of the boat to keep the craft from turning over; and, instead of rowing in the ordinary way, one man pulls with a single oar and another steers the craft with a long sweep. We land at the custom-house wharf, where our baggage undergoes a slight examination by the officers in charge, and we are then driven to the Oriental Hotel; board seven rupees per day. Rupees are the currency of the country, and are worth forty-eight cents of American coin each; they are of silver, nearly of the weight and size of the American half-dollar, and pass current throughout the whole of British India.

CHAPTER XIV.

CEYLON.

THE island of Ceylon is situated about three hundred and fifty miles north of the equator; its greatest length is two hundred and eighty miles, and breadth one hundred and forty miles. This island constitutes a distinct British province, and is under the control and supervision of the British Government. The face of the country is mountainous, but the soil is rich in fertility, well timbered with a large variety of spice, royal palm, and Oriental shade-trees. In the interior of the island agricultural pursuits are more extensive; the principal crops are coffee and rice, and on some plantations the tea-plant is cultivated, but does not thrive as in colder climates. Nearly all kinds of vegetables are raised in every part of the island. Wild beasts are numerous; leopards, elephants, tigers, and a variety of smaller animals, are captured upon the island.

The natives are almost as dark as the West India negro, with small features, long, glossy-black hair, and thin lips, possessing a mild and inoffensive countenance, and pleasant manners; even the most lowly of them, on meeting strangers, will make a graceful bow.

There is only about five degrees' difference in the climate between summer and winter; the thermometer

during the winter, on an average, in the shade, stands at about 85° , and in the summer it rarely rises above 90° . During our sojourn of ten days, the mercury has stood at an average of 85° ; I must confess, however, that it is rather warm for winter, but during the evenings we experienced a soft, gentle breeze from off the sea, and found a blanket comfortable. During the day, from ten to four o'clock, it is desirable to keep in the shade and remain quiet, to avoid sunstroke.

December 24th.—To-day in walking out we are besieged by the natives, who would follow wherever we went, enticing us to buy specialties of the country, such as turtle-shell-work jewelry, canes, birds, pearls, ivory ornaments, and polecats. When we declined to purchase at the price asked, they would then say, "What will you give?" and we generally bought for less than one-half the price originally asked. The money-brokers are another pest, doing their official business on the street, and following the stranger from pillar to post. Scores of them kept on our track, day after day, offering rupees in exchange for foreign coin. These brokers are very shrewd and bright, and could compute the difference and the discount in their heads, without pen or pencil, quicker than we Americans.

December 25th.—This being Christmas-day, the hotel in which we are boarding is beautifully trimmed; the veranda, which reaches the entire length of the building, is beautifully decorated with a complete network of evergreens and flowers, the work having been executed the evening previous by the natives. From many of the

public offices and buildings, and the shipping in the harbor, the British flag was seen proudly floating to the blossom-laden breeze.

In the forenoon we attended divine service in the Protestant Reformed church, which is a neat edifice, and beautifully located on an eminence fronting on and overlooking the sea. The congregation consisted principally of natives, who were neatly clad, and paid marked attention to the service. The choir numbers some twenty native singers of both sexes, accompanied by an organ, the combination producing very pretty music.

December 26th.—This being the Sabbath, we again attended at the Protestant Reformed church, both morning and evening. The building was very well filled, principally by the native element. They have established a mission-school here to educate the young in English, which is said to be well conducted, under the auspices of English teachers. The school-house is beautifully situated on an eminence under the shade of Oriental trees, through which the gentle breezes blow soft and fragrant along the coast.

December 27th.—To-day we proposed going on a visit to Kandy—which is situated nearly in the centre of the island, and is reached by riding seventy-two miles in a heavy coach drawn by four horses, and about forty miles by rail in addition—but, as we knew the roads to be dusty, and the weather very hot, we declined making the excursion.

Point de Galle is the principal stopping-place for steamers going to and from London to India, China,

Australia, and many other Eastern and Southern ports, and it is also the great central coaling-station. Sailing-ships are constantly engaged bringing coal from England, around by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, for the use of the numerous steamers stopping at this point.

The island of Ceylon is conceded by many to be the paradise of the world, both in scenery and climate. The air is laden with sweet-scented odors, blowing gently from off the spicy forests, and the entire face of the country is covered with the royal palm and a great variety of tropical fruit-trees.

December 28th.—To-day a native missionary minister of the gospel called on me, soliciting a donation to assist the mission in the construction of a new school-house. He said that he had been converted from Buddhism to Christianity when young, and was educated by the missionaries for the ministry, and that he had by assiduous application brought many of his countrymen to the true knowledge of salvation.

December 29th.—Both males and females go barefooted and bareheaded. Their costume is often so similar that the only way in which they can be distinguished is by their long black hair: the men have theirs put up with combs; the women theirs tied in a knot upon the top of the head. This afternoon we ride out in the country through the heavy forests, which are thickly studded with the cocoanut-tree. The cocoanut-tree is of all palms most deservedly valued, as one of the greatest of the many blessings bestowed by a bountiful Providence upon the inhabitants of a tropical climate.

It is a common saying that the cocoanut-tree has ninety-nine uses, and that the hundredth cannot be discovered. This palm is from sixty to a hundred feet in height, one or two feet in diameter, and as straight as a reed; there are no branches upon the trunk of the tree till within a few feet of the top, which is crowned with magnificent clusters of fruit and leaves, each leaf about fourteen feet in length, resembling an enormous feather. It grows best on the low, flat grounds that border the sea-coast. It is a very prolific tree, bringing forth flowers every four or five weeks; the flowers and the fruit are generally to be seen at the same time. Of the roots baskets are made; of the hollowed trunks pipes for leading water; from the leaf coarse sack-cloth is manufactured; the bud is accounted a delicacy for the table; the leaves are used for thatching buildings, for making baskets, fences, and children's cradles; and the nut furnishes the chief diet of the Cingalese. The woody ribs upon which the leaves grow are formed into a kind of basket-work for catching fish, and into brushes and brooms; when the wood is burned, good potash is yielded by the ashes, and used by washer-women instead of soap; the juice of the flower is distilled into a beverage called arrack, the excessive drinking of which brings on intoxication; the coarse covering of the nut is stripped off and made into cables and rigging for ships, and many other uses.

The bread-fruit tree is also to be seen intermingled with the forests; it is about forty feet high, having a trunk much larger than the palm, resembling more the oak, with the exception of the leaves, which are much

larger than the oak-leaf, and the fruit hangs from the branches like apples, but will weigh from eight to ten pounds each. The Cingalese are proud of the bread-fruit tree, and two or three may always be seen around a native cottage, shading it with their prolific branches. It bears fruit in five years, from the branch set out, and will continue to bear, even in its wild state, for more than half a century. By baking the fruit over a slow fire it is made into flour, and then into bread, upon which the natives principally subsist, and which is considered by them the staff of life.

There is still another valuable tree, which we see growing wild in the forest, called the jaca, and which is much larger than the bread-fruit tree, the trunk being from five to six feet in circumference; the fruit is oblong and large, ten to twelve pounds in weight, and the natives eat it freely. Many different kinds of spice and nut trees may be seen growing wild in the thick forests. I am informed that there is not a shrub, tree, or plant, growing upon the islands bordering upon the equator, that is not of some benefit to the inhabitants.

Ceylon can well be called the paradise of the world, for Providence has provided the people with all luxuries imaginable. Besides her forests being filled with wild game in abundance, her trees bring forth fruit, both for food and beverage; her rivers and bays are filled with a variety of fine fish, all sent by Him who rules over the universe, to feed the people in this heathen and far-off land.

December 30th.—This afternoon we took a ride around

the bay. We stopped on the way at some of the principal bungalows, and also at the Buddhist temple, where we were shown the idols and gods which they worship. There were some eight or ten priests in and around this small temple, whose dress consisted of a large yellow shawl wrapped around the bare body. They were the most forlorn specimens of humanity I ever saw, without



NAUTCH GIRLS.

shoes or hats, and having their hair shaved close to the head. The priests in this country are not allowed to marry, or keep concubines. Whenever one of them dies, the body is burned upon an altar, and the ashes, put in a stone jar, are offered up in sacrifice unto idols.

December 31st.—Whenever we go into the streets, either to walk or ride, we are pestered with beggars; there seems to be no end of them. This afternoon while

riding out, a large company of men and boys followed the carriage for two or three miles; as one crowd tired out, in going through some village, a new set would spring up and keep pace with the horses. We saw but few women, for they kept more in the huts. As we were passing through the woods a guana came out of a swamp. This reptile resembles the alligator, excepting that it has a tongue like a snake. Those that inhabit the swamps and rivers are black, and those living on the land are gray; they are often from twelve to fifteen feet long. On our return we stopped in a cinnamon-grove, and got some bark.

January 1, 1876.—This is the warmest New-Year's-day that I have ever experienced, the thermometer indicating 86° in the shade. The colonists, and also some of the natives, observed it as a general holiday. In walking out through the woods, in the cool of the day, we came to a very fine bungalow. The gate was open, and we concluded to walk in the grounds, where we were politely met by a middle-aged gentleman, who, after plucking some flowers for us, extended us an invitation to go and see his father, to which we gave our consent. We found the old gentleman sitting on the front veranda. He said he knew that we were Americans; that he was at all times glad to see and talk with people from the New World, for he had heard that it was a fine country, and it had once been ruled by George Washington, one of the greatest statesmen of any age of the world's history. He said he was eighty-six years of age, and had three sons. I asked him how he liked his queen; he

said that Queen Victoria was a lady of high-toned character, and had been a good ruler, much better than his countrymen, who are incapable of governing themselves.

January 2d.—This morning early the steamship Surat, Captain Burn, arrived in port from London, on which we engaged passage for Calcutta, distance thirteen hundred and thirty miles; fare twenty rupees, or ten dollars' each, being probably the cheapest passage in the world for so long a distance. But this is easily accounted for, as there are some two or three rival lines between Ceylon and Calcutta; the regular fare on certain days, when the opposing ships are not in, is one hundred and sixty rupees. The Surat is of three thousand tons' burden, full-rigged, built of iron, propelled by a stern-screw, and belongs to the English mail Peninsular and Oriental line. After taking tiffin, or lunch, at the hotel, we pay our bills and hasten on board. We have in company some thirty-five first-class passengers, the most of whom were direct from London, *en route* for Calcutta.

CHAPTER XV.

CEYLON TO CALCUTTA.

January 3d.—Bay of Bengal. We are all day in sight of land, and sailing along the westerly coast of Ceylon. The weather is most charming, wind light, and sea smooth. Thermometer 80° . Course north by west; latitude $7^{\circ} 5'$ north, longitude $82^{\circ} 3'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., one hundred and fifty-four miles.

January 4th.—Bay of Bengal. Weather fine, and sea smooth. Thermometer 80° . Course north by west; latitude 10° north, longitude $81^{\circ} 8'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and forty-five miles.

January 5th.—This morning early we arrived at Madras, India. Our ship dropped anchor about one mile from the shore, which is a very rough and dangerous place to land. We are carried on shore in a large surf-boat manned by fourteen natives, twelve pulling at the oars, one steering the boat, and one or two standing in readiness to bale water as it occasionally broke over the bows. As the boat approached the sandy beach, we were nearly swamped by the angry breakers; the sailors, in great haste, sprang from the boat into the surf, and carried us in sedan-chairs upon dry land. At times, when the sea is very rough, ships do not venture to land, but both freight and passengers are carried to Calcutta.

We are now landed on the great continent of India, containing a population of over two hundred million souls, with a territory covering one and a half million square miles. How strange it seems that this dominion of India, with such a large population, can be controlled by the far-off island of Great Britain, which contains only



MADRAS SURF.

thirty million! And yet there is a reason for it: weak and ignorant tribes and nations are generally found dependent on stronger and more enlightened ones, and are often absorbed by them. All Christian and prosperous nations must expand. If practicable, the expansion will be made on adjacent regions; if not practicable, it will then be made in those regions, however distant, which

offer the least resistance. The British conquests in India are so recent, that the civil government can hardly yet be said to be consolidated. Within this vast territory there are three great presidencies—Madras, Bengal, and Bombay. The northern and eastern portions of the territory are divided into provinces. A viceroy, or governor-general, appointed by the Queen of Great Britain for four years, resides in Calcutta and administers a form of federal government, while each presidency and province has its own local administration.

We first saw the city of Madras from the sea, and it seemed commanding and beautiful, a city of European aspect stretching some three or four miles along the border of the sandy shore, upon a low and level plain, and containing over four hundred thousand people. We hasten on and make the best use of our time, by visiting some of the principal shops and edifices. We find the weather excessively hot, and one day is quite sufficient for all that is to be seen. Mr. Fowler, one of the passengers, who joined us on shipboard at San Francisco, remained over, expecting to sail for Calcutta by the following ship of this line. At eight o'clock in the evening the ship's anchor was weighed, and we resumed our journey *en route* for Calcutta.

January 6th.—Bay of Bengal. Weather fine, wind light from the north, and sea smooth. Thermometer 80° . Ship's course north by west; latitude $15^{\circ} 8'$ north, longitude $82^{\circ} 12'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and sixty-seven miles.

January 7th.—Bay of Bengal. Weather fine, sea

smooth, not a ripple being visible on its surface. Thermometer 81° . Course north by west; latitude $18^{\circ} 14'$ north, longitude $85^{\circ} 14'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and fifty-four miles.

January 8th.—Bay of Bengal. The weather charming, and the sea is like glass. In the mirror-like waters occasionally we see a water-snake swimming playfully over the surface near the ship, and it was most amusing to hear some of the more timid lady passengers order the waiters to close the outside ports of their staterooms, lest a snake should crawl up the ship's side and take possession! Thermometer 80° . Course west-northwest; latitude $21^{\circ} 24'$ north, longitude $85^{\circ} 8'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., two hundred and sixty-four miles.

We met quite a number of sailing-ships on their passage, going both into and out of Calcutta, one of whose decks was literally crowded with coolies, destined as was supposed to servitude in some foreign country. This afternoon at two o'clock the ship came to anchor in the mouth of the Hoogly River, abreast of Tiger Island, waiting for the flood-tide. It is said that this large and lonely island, covered with brushwood, abounds with tigers and other beasts of prey. There is a monument on the island marking the spot where a young woman was carried off by a tiger. A vessel from America was detained by the tide, as often happens at this point, and a number of the passengers concluded to go on shore. While they were strolling in the thicket, a lady, one of the party, strayed a little from the rest of the company, when presently a scream from the woman was heard;

her companions ran to her assistance, but arrived only in time to see her carried off by a tiger. Some of our passengers proposed taking the ship's gig and going ashore on the opposite side of the river from Tiger Island, but both Captain Burn and the ship's pilot advised us not to venture, for fear of injury from the wild animals infesting the jungles.

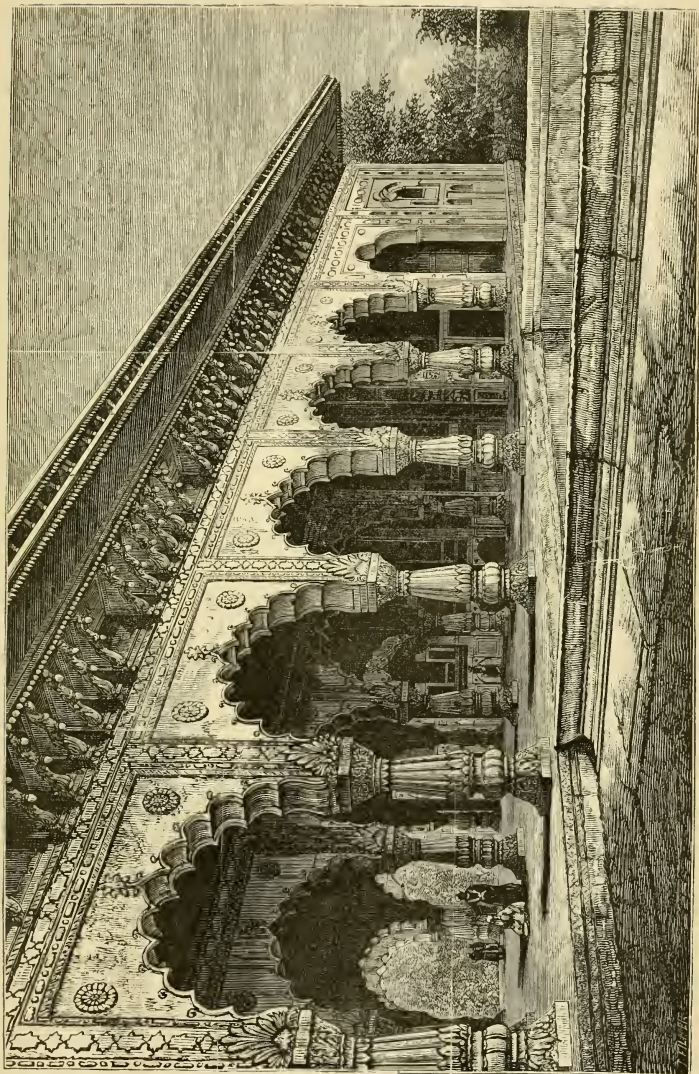
January 9th.—Calcutta is situated on the Hoogly River, about one hundred miles from its mouth; the Hoogly is one of the principal outlets of the Ganges. This morning at seven o'clock the ship's anchor was raised, and we resumed our course for Calcutta. In a few minutes after getting under way, our ship collided with a native junk, and before the ship's life-boat could be lowered from the davits the little craft had sunk to the bottom, leaving its crew of fifteen sailors floating upon the surface of the water. Fortunately they were all rescued from a watery grave. When they were brought on deck, the ship's officers ordered rice for their breakfast. In consequence of the detention caused by this accident, our steamer lost the flood-tide, and at twelve o'clock anchored, where we had to remain till the next morning for the high tide, in order to cross the bar.

January 10th.—This morning at ten o'clock the ship again got under way. Most of the passengers were anxious to get to Calcutta, but we were not so much limited in time, and, being in smooth water, with delightful scenery on both sides of the river, felt that we were quite as well off on shipboard, with a bountiful table, as we probably would be in any other place.

The lower parts of the banks of the Hoogly River are covered with wild jungles, through which are scattered, sometimes in groves, the cocoanut and other palms, the whole landscape assuming a strictly Oriental aspect. The river is a dangerous one, and can only be navigated by daylight, on account of the numerous sand-banks, which shift during every heavy freshet.

As we approach the city of Calcutta, the signs of cultivation become more frequent. For several miles the river on either side is lined with rich plantations and costly residences, mingled with Oriental shade-trees, and surrounded by magnificent vegetable and flower gardens.

In sight of Calcutta, on the opposite side of the river, is situated the palace of the ex-King of Oude, who was dethroned by the East India Company, and brought to Calcutta as a prisoner of state. He was allowed to retain a great part of his wealth. The buildings are very pretty, extending a long distance upon the river-banks; here stands his temple, the dome of which is covered with burnished gold, dazzling to look upon in the bright sunlight. We were detained for nearly two hours opposite his grounds, partly in getting the ship into the dock, and partly in waiting for the custom-house officials, and had abundance of time to examine the beauties of the place. At length the custom-house officers came on board, and examined the passengers' trunks. We did not wait for the ship to get alongside the wharf, but took a native craft. As we approached the shore, we saw gathered together crowds of people; all nations and



PALACE OF THE KING OF OUDE.

all costumes seemed to be represented, and by the time our boat reached the landing scores of them made a rush for our baggage, and it was necessary for us to shout, and fight our way through the crowd the best we could to prevent it from being carried off. Before leaving the ship we made a bargain, in plain English, as to what the price should be to carry us on shore, and our trunks up the bank, about fifty feet distant, to the *gharries*, or carriages, for which the carriers demanded additional pay. I refused in the most emphatic manner to pay any more than the sum agreed upon, and, if they would carry the trunks up the bank and place them on the *gharry*, I should pay them, but not before. After all had been done, more than a dozen gathered around, each one demanding enough for all, whether he had touched our baggage or not. At length I settled with the man with whom I had made the bargain, by handing him what I thought right, and told the noisy crowd to look to him for their dues.

We were driven to the Great Eastern Hotel, where we arrived at six o'clock in the afternoon, and were furnished with good rooms for six rupees per day for each person. In addition to the two rooms which we occupied, we had a bath-room, which is desirable in a hot climate.

The Great Eastern is run by a company, and is the largest hotel in Calcutta. The table was supplied with the most delicious fruits, and all the necessaries of life in abundance. The servants were so numerous that they were often in each other's way. With their dusky forms,

clothed in white from head to foot, moving about without shoes, and uttering not a word, they seemed like so many lost spirits. When waiting on us at table, they wore white-muslin hats, with immense brims covered with the same material; when we retired at night we signified to them, as plainly as we could, that their duties for the day were over, and that we no longer required their services. Closing the door, we fancied that we had seen the last of them for the night; but scarcely had we turned round when the same dark ghosts in white stood before us, and when I awoke in the morning, on opening the door, the same forms were lying on the floor, awaiting orders for the day.

CHAPTER XVI.

CALCUTTA.

January 11th.—The city of Calcutta is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Hoogly River, about one hundred miles from the ocean. It contains some seven hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, and is conceded to be the finest city in the East. Some of the largest and finest sailing-ships in the world enter her port, and her commerce is with all the earth. Calcutta may be called the European capital of Asia, for it has been the seat of the British Empire in the East for more than a century, and the impress of British energy and influence is seen and felt on every hand.

By many Calcutta is regarded as a city of palaces. Here are the residences of the merchants, and those connected with the civil and military service, whose dwellings may in truth be called palaces, standing as they do in the midst of squares, surrounded by a profusion of trees, shrubs, and flowers. Some of the dwellings are massive, but not architecturally beautiful. The acacia, mango, bamboo, and the stately palm—the glory of the tropics—are seen in the gardens; but that part of Calcutta occupied by the natives presents a dingy and dirty appearance, and it would be a most difficult matter to keep it otherwise, for the streets are narrow and literally

filled with people. In that part occupied by Europeans, however, the streets are beautifully macadamized and bordered with shade-trees. A large number of coolies are employed in watering the streets, each waterman having, instead of a cart, a goatskin shaped like an immense bottle left open at the neck, and suspended by a strap over the shoulders of the coolie, who, seizing the neck with one hand, throws the water hither and thither, transforming the dust into mud.

The city of Calcutta has undergone many vicissitudes, and witnessed many exciting and bloody events. During the conflict of 1756, between the Hindoos and the English, when Fort William was taken by Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, a feeble garrison being left to defend the fort after the Governor and others had escaped to the ships, the prisoners, one hundred and forty-six in number, were imprisoned in a room only eighteen feet square, with two small windows (what is now known the world over as the Black Hole of Calcutta). On the 18th of June, during a sultry night, they were shut up without water or food, or any means of relief. Mr. Holwell, an English officer, and one of the unfortunate inmates, has described in detail the horrors of that fatal night, which are scarcely paralleled in the annals of human misery. Every moment added to their distress, but all attempts to obtain relief were in vain. Messengers were sent to the nabob to inform him of the terrible sufferings of the prisoners, and the answer came back that he was asleep and his attendants dared not wake him, fearing that, if disturbed, he might treat

his captives with still greater inhumanity. The air of the prison soon became pestilential, producing at every respiration of the poor wretches a feeling of suffocation; the perspiration flowed in streams, and they were tormented with the most burning thirst. As the sufferers grew weaker, they began to be squeezed or trampled to death. Loud shouts were raised for water, and when the Hindoo soldiers without heard their cries, they brought lights to witness their sufferings and mock at them. At about eleven o'clock the prisoners began to die fast; six of Howell's intimate friends expired at his feet, and were trampled upon by the survivors. A great proportion were raving or delirious; some uttered incoherent prayers, others the most frightful blasphemies. They endeavored by their cries to induce the guards to fire the prison, and put an end to their sufferings, but without effect. When day dawned upon that fatal night, the few prisoners who had not died were either raving mad or insensible. At six in the morning the nabob made his appearance, and, on his learning the events of the night, he gave orders to unbar the fatal door, and out of the one hundred and forty-six captives only twenty-three ghastly forms had just life enough left to crawl from the dark hole when the door was opened; the remaining one hundred and twenty-three lay piled upon the floor, a heap of putrid corpses. No scene connected with Calcutta is more indelibly graven on the memory of the world than this.

After Mr. Howell had been revived by the fresh air, the nabob ordered for him a seat and a cup of water, but

showed no other mark of sympathy, and immediately commenced a strict inquiry about the supposed treasure hid in some part of the fort which had been taken on the previous day. Mr. Howell tried to explain to him that he had no knowledge of the money, but rather supposed the Governor had taken the treasure on board the ships, which had a tendency to reconcile the nabob, so he sent Mr. Howell, with the other surviving prisoners, to Moorshedabad. During the voyage they suffered severely, their bodies being covered with boils that had broken out in consequence of their confinement. The dead bodies of the prisoners, without any ceremony, were thrown into a ditch.

All the English force, both naval and military, which could possibly be spared, under the command of Admiral Watson, was dispatched with the greatest haste to Calcutta. The ships arrived in the middle of December, and anchored some fifteen miles below the city. Letters for the nabob were forthwith sent to Calcutta, but, receiving no reply, the English determined without delay to commence hostilities. The admiral immediately moved the ships up the river, in front of Fort Mayapore, which he proposed to attack on the following day. Little resistance being apprehended, Colonel Clive, about midnight, landed with a large force of men, with a view to cut off the retreat of the garrison of the fort to Calcutta; he accordingly stationed his troops in a low, hollow space, surrounded by brushwood, thinking that he was perfectly secure. The men being extremely fatigued, they fell asleep without even

placing a sentinel. The enemy informed the nabob of their position, who sent a large detachment which made an unexpected attack in the night. The English suffered terribly before they could form their ranks; their two field-pieces fell into the hands of the enemy, who fortunately knew not how to use them, and they were afterward recovered. Colonel Clive resolved not to retreat, lest his troops should be struck with panic; and when they were at length rallied, and formed in order of battle, they quickly dispersed the band of assailants.

The nabob was so much discouraged by this movement that he left Calcutta, leaving it garrisoned by only five hundred men, who surrendered almost so soon as Admiral Watson had opened his batteries. The merchandise which had been left, belonging to the English, was found, it having been reserved for the use of the nabob.

On our way up the Hoogly River, some fifteen miles below Calcutta, we passed Serampore, which is beautifully situated. Every one who is at all familiar with the history of missions in the East knows how intimately this place is associated with the names of the earliest and some of the best men that have gone out to preach the gospel in Asiatic countries. In the beginning of the present century it was the cave in which the missionaries were concealed when they were forbidden to preach in British India (it then being a Danish possession, and not under the control of the English); and this is the spot where Carey and Ward confined themselves, to study the languages of the country. Here they

planted their printing-presses, and sent forth millions of pages of Christian truth into nearly all parts of Asia and the islands of the sea. Here, too, Judson, several years later, found a temporary refuge, when he was forbidden to land at Calcutta, as if he and his coadjutors from America had been guilty of conspiring against the peace of the country.

Carey was born of poor parentage, in a small town in England, and apprenticed at the age of fourteen to the business of shoemaking, which trade he seems never to have mastered. It is said that in after-years, when dining at the governor-general's in India, he overheard some Englishman speak of him as a shoemaker, whereupon he turned around and corrected him, saying that he was only a cobbler! On his death-bed, both the wife of the Governor-General of India and the Bishop of Calcutta came to ask his dying blessing. While learning his trade in England he improved himself by reading, and at length turned his attention to the study of languages and the Bible; he was licensed by the Baptists to preach the gospel. On his arrival in India he was obliged to conceal himself from the knowledge of the East India Company, whose policy was opposed to efforts for the conversion of the natives. For several years he labored in great seclusion, supporting himself by working on an indigo-plantation. In the year 1800 he was joined by Marshman and Ward from England, when they established themselves under Danish protection at Serampore. They applied themselves to learning the languages, and began the translation of the Bible

into the numerous tongues of the East. They also laid the foundation of a college of high order, and erected for it a building which even now is regarded as one of the finest structures of its kind in India; they likewise formed a fine library, now filled with the choicest works of the East.

It is wonderful that a few poor missionaries could do such a work, and the greater part of the expense of these enterprises they bore themselves. Dr. Carey at length, for his services as professor in the College of Fort William at Calcutta, received a thousand rupees a month, nearly equal to six thousand dollars per year; Mr. Ward received as much more in the printing-office; and Mr. and Mrs. Marshman about the same for teaching; and yet, while they were receiving these large sums for their services, they drew from the fund only twelve rupees each, or six dollars a month. The remainder was devoted, by mutual consent, to the purposes of the mission and for spreading the gospel. The cost of one version alone, which they prepared and printed, was one hundred thousand dollars. The words of the agreement which they signed when they entered on their work were: "Let us give ourselves up unreservedly to the cause in which we are engaged; let us never think that our time, our gifts, our strength, our families, or even the clothes we wear, are our own; let us sanctify them all to God and his glorious cause." They were all earnest in the work, and they lived not unto themselves, but as wise stewards laid their treasures where neither moth nor rust doth corrupt, and where thieves do not

break through nor steal; and they have passed away to enjoy their rich reward.

The Zenana Mission was undertaken a few years ago by the Woman's Union Missionary Society of America for Heathen Lands, whose headquarters in India are at Calcutta, under the superintendence of Miss Hook a lady of rare culture and refinement. The ladies of the mission go out daily among the zenanas, and by many are cordially received. Great numbers of the wealthy natives express an earnest desire to be instructed.

The Bishop's College is beautifully situated on the banks of the Hoogly, some two or three miles below Calcutta, and is surrounded by a botanic garden or park. It was founded in the year 1820 for the purpose of training up, under the discipline of the Church of England, young men for preachers and teachers to be employed by the Church in scattering the seeds of the gospel over India. The arrangements in this institution are very extensive.

The Asiatic Society, located in Calcutta, was established by the eminent scholar and Christian, Sir William Jones, who went out to India in 1783. Having been appointed to the bench of the Supreme Court of Bengal, he devoted himself to the study of the languages of the East, as the best means of fitting himself for usefulness in India. He is said to have acquired in the course of his life twenty-eight different languages, and to have become familiar with the literature of each. This Asiatic Society was formed for the purpose of preserving the history and the memorials of India. It contains an

immense collection of volumes and antique manuscripts, and relics of many kinds. The large building in which they were kept was long since filled, so that it was found necessary to construct additional buildings for the accommodation of the institution.

The Government House, built during the administration of the Marquis of Wellesley, has dimensions perhaps one-fourth less than the Capitol at Washington. Its walls are brick, covered with stucco in the Indian style, an excellent imitation of white marble. It is inclosed with gardens, filled with a profusion of Oriental shrubs and shade-trees; but the noble arched gateway is ornamented with no such modern and republican symbol as the bird of freedom, with arrows and the olive-branch in its claws, nor does the tower or turret show any stars or stripes, or any modern tri-colored ensign. Instead of all these, there are a lion and unicorn stationed over the gateway, being more of a representation of fighting for the crown than of liberty. The stately cross of St. George is displayed from the palace-walls; marquees and tents cover the plain, surmounted with the same flag, and officers, soldiers, and servants, are all clothed in gorgeous scarlet and gold uniforms, tokens of British royal authority. The walls are covered with British portraits—the most prominent among them being those of George III., and Charlotte, his faithful queen; the Earl of Chatham, General Wolfe, Lord North, Lord Cornwallis, Lord Clive, and others too numerous to mention. The person, stranger or otherwise, who desires or claims notice at the vice-regal court,

instead of presenting letters or leaving cards, registers his name in the adjacent court. If recognized, he is honored with an audience; if not, nothing is said. It is stated that when the dinner-hour arrives, and the invited guests are assembled in the throne-room, standing, the viceroy and the Countess of Mayo enter, each attended by an aide-de-camp, and they salute their guests individually. The band plays during the dinner, which usually takes about two hours.

CHAPTER XVII.

CALCUTTA AND ITS SIGHTS.

January 12th.—Kali Ghaut is the most famous of the Hindoo temples in Calcutta. It has three disconnected structures; the floors of all are on one level, about eight feet above the ground, and are reached by flights of stone steps. The building on the right hand is circular, open all around, with roof supported by Hindoo columns; the central building is oblong; the third and principal edifice is square, and surmounted by a dome, which extends beyond the walls, and is supported by outside columns and no windows; light is admitted through small niches. The building first described is the hall of sacrifice, into which only Brahman priests are admitted. The building last mentioned contains the shrine of the goddess Kali, to whose service the Thugs especially devoted themselves. Not even its threshold is allowed to be profaned by the footsteps of the vulgar. The central edifice is the worshipers', in which they pay their adoration. Bullocks and goats are sacrificed, and there are connected with this one temple about one hundred and fifty priests.

January 13th.—To-day we ride out some four or five miles into the country, to the palace known as the Seven Tanks. This edifice is a large building within

the inclosure of extensive gardens, ornamented with a large variety of flowers, shrubs, and shade-trees, and having fish-ponds, carriage-roads, and winding pathways. The lord of the palace was not at home, but, by giving the waiters in charge a small fee, we were permitted to enter. The walls were covered with life-size pictures of the members of the family for several generations back, and the tables were covered with relics of antiquity. In the garden or park we saw cages filled with wild animals. The huge boa-constrictors, sleeping in their apartments, were captured in the north of India. The ostrich, the bird-of-paradise, the pelican, the eagle, and the swan, are as domesticated as if they had known no other home. The fish-pond is quite deep; its inhabitants came to the surface and fed from our hands. Here we saw an immense green tortoise which weighs nearly two hundred pounds, capable of carrying a man on his back. The cages contained a variety of wild animals, the ferocious black bear, the tiger, and the lion, among the most prominent.

January 14th.—To-day we take a ride to the Royal Botanical Garden, situated on the opposite side of the river from Calcutta. The grounds cover two hundred and seventy-two acres, and have a river-frontage on the Hoogly of over a mile. The roads are beautifully laid out, and the whole of the grounds may be gone over without leaving a carriage. To the left we passed by a mahogany-grove, and a variety of palms and other shade-trees. We at length come to the great banyan-tree, the pride of India. This wonderful tree is said

to be several hundred years old, and the largest of its kind in the country, covering a space of ground eight hundred feet in circumference; it measures around its trunk fifty-one feet, and one hundred and seventy of its branches descend to the ground and have taken root, presenting one of the most novel sights ever witnessed, and people come from all parts to see it.

During the afternoon we ride out to Fort William, which is very handsomely situated on the banks of the Hoogly River. The fort is in the form of an irregular octagon, with five sides toward the land and three toward the river; it is surrounded by a dry moat or ditch, which can be filled in a short space of time with water by a sluice from the river. The fort is situated on a plain, on gently-rising ground, and contains six hundred mounted guns. It is capable of accommodating fifty thousand men, and is the largest fortification in India.

On our return to the city we stopped at the Garden of Eden. The name, however, is not a synonym for paradise, as might be supposed, but was bestowed in compliment to Miss Eden, the sister of Earl Godolphin, a former Governor-General of India. Brilliant gas-lights sparkled through the dark foliage of mango, palm, and cypress trees, with music from a central stand. It was a gay scene to look upon, and we promenaded on the green lawns for an hour, listening to the music and surrounded by groups of gentlemen, ladies, and children; army officers in full dress, stately baboos in white cambric, dusky Sepoy guards in white-and-red uniforms, rajahs in jeweled turbans and gold-embroidered robes, and Moham-

medans in the background on their knees—the latter with their faces toward Mecca, repeating their prayers.

That portion of the city between the Garden of Eden and Fort William is one continual park, forming the great fashionable drive of Calcutta. Every evening just before sunset, when the heat of the day has passed, the whole town turns out for an hour's drive up and down the strand, which is one of the gayest and most beautiful sights to be seen in the suburbs of any city, and one of the most peculiar; in no part of the world is there anything to equal it. The Europeans, with their gay equipages, from the viceroy's scarlet and gold down to the unpretending *gharry*, move on in a steady line, sometimes three, four, or five abreast, until night comes on. The occupants of the carriages are mostly Europeans, but the entire scene is decidedly Oriental; some of the coachmen and footmen are fine specimens of the various tribes of India, all in native costume, the colors and style of which are as varied as the races of Hindostan, all of whom seem to be in high glee.

We also visited the place on the banks of the river where the Hindoos burn the dead, which is one of the most loathsome sights that I have ever witnessed. On our arrival a dead human body had just been placed on the funeral-pile; in a short time the hot flames consumed the body, and the ashes were collected by the priest and thrown into the river. While the fire was doing its work, the mourners and friends of the deceased sat flat upon the ground witnessing the fearful scene, which to them is as sacred as the religion they profess. Every

day a number of dead bodies are disposed of in this manner.

We called at the office of A. C. Litchfield, consul-general for the United States, by whom we were received with marked attention, and who invited us to make a visit at his residence.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GOVERNMENT AND CASTE IN INDIA.

IN the sacred volume which contains the earliest of our historical records, no statement is made whence we might conclude that the Jews, the first inhabitants of the world, had arrived at any knowledge of India. The river Euphrates, and the territory immediately beyond it, appeared to them the most remote objects to the eastward, and are described as the end of the earth. Nothing satisfactory is known either of the region or the people before Alexander the Great entered the country with his army, which was a little more than three hundred years before the Christian era.

At that early age of the world's history, Alexander, having formed a resolution to explore the East, employed the Phœnicians, and other maritime people belonging to his army, to construct a fleet of more than two thousand vessels, in which he put part of his army, and encamped on the shore with the remainder until all were in readiness for departure. At length this great armament began its movement down the river; the noise and shouting of the troops, and the brandishing of so many oars, as the flotilla dropped down the stream, struck with admiration the many spectators who lined the shore, and who were eagerly watching their prog-

ress. Some time was spent on their voyage, and in attacking certain strong places, by which Alexander rashly sacrificed many of his troops, and even endangered his own life, for the pleasure of making conquests which he had not the power to retain. After a voyage of nine months, as it is stated, down the river, he landed at Pattala. On his approach the inhabitants fled, and allowed him to take possession of their capital without resistance. As they went farther down the river, the stream divided into two spacious channels, in entering one of which they were much alarmed when the water suddenly receded and left a large part of their ships on dry land; but, the next day, the channel again filled with water and the vessels floated off without receiving any damage, which alternation was occasioned by the tide, of which they had no knowledge. In a few months after, Alexander crossed the Persian Gulf, where he found a friendly people and a fertile country, in which all the wants of the fleet were supplied, and, in the following year, that part of the fleet which had not been lost along the rocky coast arrived in India, and penetrated the country as far as the Ganges.

The discovery of the passage to India around the Cape of Good Hope was made six years after the discovery of America by Columbus, and opened the whole of India to the commerce of Europe. In the year 1600 a commercial company was chartered in England, under the name of the East India Company, with almost unlimited privileges and power, which continued to increase and extend its limits until it had brought the greater part

of India under its sway ; but at length, in 1858, the year after the great Sepoy mutiny, the company was compelled by the Government of Great Britain to relinquish all its possessions in India.

The Hindoos claim for their country and nation an antiquity of four or five million years, and that things have been going on much after the same fashion from the beginning ; that in the early days of their race men grew to the height of from fifteen to twenty feet, and lived a thousand or more years.

The empire of India, as previously mentioned, includes a number of provinces and presidencies, such as Bengal, Bombay, Madras, etc., extending over a territory of a million and a half square miles, and contains a population of two hundred million people ; it is now administered by a governor-general or viceroy, who has under him, in the several provinces, governors, lieutenant-governors, and commissioners. All the great native rulers were dethroned, and their territory taken, in the conquests made by British arms.

For a period of two hundred and fifty years India was ruled for the benefit of the East India Company. This was a commercial enterprise, undertaken for the purpose of making money, and gold and precious stones were the objects sought, while the welfare of the people was among the last matters to be considered ; even the claims of religion, humanity, and justice, were too often treated with neglect. But things have taken a wonderful change since that great monopoly has been abolished. India is now ruled, not for the sake of extorting money

from a subjugated race, but for the welfare of the people; and instead of the cause of religion being retarded as hitherto, it is now encouraged and propagated in every possible way by all good English subjects.

The aspect of the country, in its material, educational, social, and religious interests, is at present full of promise. There are yet reforms to be worked out which will require time for their consummation; but, judging from the movements now inaugurated, India bids fair to become a mighty empire in the East. The viceroyalty is the highest office in the gift of the British crown, and, considering the extent of its sway, and the population over which it is exercised, it is the most important delegated office in the world. The power is not so absolute as was that of the governors-general in the palmy days of the East India Company, but the present viceroy is directly responsible to the home Government. He is paid a salary of twenty-five thousand pounds—equal to one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars—annually, and is allowed nearly as much more for incidental expenses. He has, as before remarked, an extensive palace in Calcutta, where he resides during the winter, and another in the Himalaya Mountains, where he spends the summer.

All official salaries in India are generally large; and the immense army of office-holders employed in all the departments of government—the revenues for their payment being drawn directly from the country itself—makes it of vast importance to Great Britain, for it is a source from which a large number of the higher and

middle classes obtain their support. Some officials, who receive the highest salaries, have the promise of pensions after their terms of service expire. Nearly every ship returning to England carries home servants of the Government, and as many more are constantly coming out. At the end of seven years, as a rule, officers, both high and low, have a furlough of one year on full pay, with the expenses of their voyage homeward paid; this rule not only includes the army, but also the banks and other corporations.

There is associated with the viceroy an Executive Council, whose members may be regarded as secretaries or ministers in charge of the bureaus of Foreign Affairs, Finance, War, Judiciary, Post-Office, Board of Public Works and Education. This Executive Council, like a cabinet council elsewhere, waits on the viceroy daily or weekly as he requires. Its members are residents in India, and they are appointed by the viceroy with the consent of the crown. With the consent of the Executive Council the viceroy appoints all magisterial and ministerial officers. All this confers upon the viceroy almost absolute power over the government of India. There is also a Legislative Council, which consists of the same executive councilors, with the addition of a few residents of India selected by the viceroy, with the approval of the crown, to represent the general interests of the country. In each of these councils the viceroy presides. He can veto any measure passed, but not without rendering his reasons to the crown. This Legislative Council makes general laws and levies taxes. A majority in each

Council are British, but a few prominent natives of India, distinguished for rank, property, or merit, are added to each. The Executive Council sits with closed doors, but the Legislative Council debates in public, and its proceedings are reported as fully as those of our own Congress of the United States. Thus it will be seen that the Government of British India differs from that of the United States, chiefly in its denial of the elective franchise. All its appointments are derived, directly, or indirectly from the crown of England.

But the Government of India, as described, is not established in all parts of the conquered territory. There are several districts, some very large ones, which still remain under the government of native hereditary princes. All these provinces, however, acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government, and submit to its intervention in the local administration by way of advice or protest. Some of them feel quite independent. Other native princes are more subservient, and consent to have their revenues collected by the Calcutta Government, and even applied by it to the welfare and improvement of the districts. Some admit judicial interference, and others exclude it. Some still maintain armies, and others have surrendered that power. Hence it is apparent that a large part of India is in a transitory state, and much remains to be done to consolidate the several interests of the Government.

The European population of India, including the British Islands, is short of two hundred thousand, who are chiefly engaged in the public, military, and civil

service, although in the principal cities there is a large mercantile population. And it seems wonderful that such a small number should be capable of governing over two hundred million people. There are very few Europeans in India that were born there, and scarcely one whose parents were natives of the country. There is a class of children born in the country, of European fathers and native mothers, numbering over fifty thousand, called East Indians, who are commonly acquainted with both the foreign and native languages; many of this class have had special advantages of education, and occupy positions as clerks or agents of the Government; they are almost as dark as the natives, and are easily distinguished by their European features; they are not reputed to possess as much enterprise of character as foreigners.

The great objection by the natives to the schools and colleges in India is, that they have a tendency to oppose their religious form of idolatry, which they consider quite as sacred as we do Christianity. But, doubtless, the results of the work of education and the teachings of Christianity must aid greatly in the overthrow of idolatry, and of other forms of false religion which have so long prevailed in the land. The general attitude of the Government toward the systems of idolatry has undergone an entire change. The time was, and not many years ago, when the East India Company derived a large revenue from the native temples and places of worship; when the English soldiers were compelled to bow down and do reverence before the heathen gods,

for the sake of securing the favor or avoiding the hostility of the natives. At length a long indictment was found, and recorded against the former rulers of the land by the home Government; and they were convicted not only of wickedness but of folly, when, in the great mutiny of 1857, the very men whose favor they had courted became their most deadly enemies.

The greatest social difficulty of the Government consists in contending against the ancient laws and customs of caste. A touching incident, which may be regarded as showing the protest of human nature against the laws of caste, is told of a young native woman, which occurred a few years ago. She was indicted for the murder of her child, whose father was of a lower caste than her own, and with which intermarriage was forbidden. She confessed that she killed the infant, rather than lose her caste. The jury, half native and half foreign, pronounced her not guilty, notwithstanding her confession. Therefore the rules of caste are unbroken even by crime. A man may commit murder, adultery, theft, or perjury, and even be convicted of such crimes without losing caste; but if he violates any of the ceremonial laws, even by eating with a European, or with a Mohammedan of India, or with any one not belonging to his class, he would be degraded. It is said that a Brahman was once forced by a European to eat a small particle of meat. Although his offense was involuntary, he had to do three years' penance, and pay a ransom of one hundred thousand rupees, to be restored to his caste! If one violates the rules of caste, he or she is driven from

home ; and any friend who should give shelter would be denounced as an outcast. Neither parents, nor wife, nor children, would be allowed to hold intercourse with such a man.

This is the penalty that every Hindoo incurs who becomes a Christian, and caste thus proves one of the most serious obstacles to the progress of the Christian religion. It is a severe test, but just such a test as was indicated by the promise of the Saviour : "Every one that hath forsaken houses, or brethren, or sisters, or father, or mother, or wife, or children, or lands, for my name's sake, shall receive an hundred-fold, and shall inherit everlasting life."

There are certain features of national character which not only discriminate one people from another in distant parts of the globe, but also the same people from their immediate neighbors. The outlines of the Hindoo religious system have already been traced, and we have now to consider their political arrangements and the peculiar castes and classes into which they are divided.

The Hindoos appear to have been always ruled by despotic governments ; and for many ages their subjection to a foreign race, differing in religion, manners, and language from those of their own, has been humiliating ; even the native princes who had attained a certain degree of power have been degraded, and certain privileges wrested from them.

A township or village is formed by a community of the same caste, occupying a certain extent of land, the boundaries of which are carefully defined. Some-

times it is cultivated in common by the united labor of the inhabitants, but more commonly each ploughs his separate field. Some part of the land is assigned to those who have charge of important public services. They have over them one who acts as judge and magistrate, and treats with judges of similar communities. Whatever change the supreme authority in the empire may undergo, or into whatever hands it may pass by inheritance, usurpation, or force of arms, whether its rulers be native or foreign, the peculiar constitution of each township remains unaltered; no revolutions affect it, no conquest changes it; even when invasion has compelled its members to leave their native seats, and spend years in exile, upon the first dawn of tranquillity, they hasten back, and if possible resume their ancient inheritance.

The next grand feature, and one now peculiar to India, consists in the division of the people into castes; it is an institution which has long effected a separation among certain orders of society as complete as if they had belonged to different species. Although its power has been shaken by the inroads of the English, it still continues to exist. The four principal castes consist of the Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and the Sudras. It is through religion, or rather a slavish superstition, that these distinctions are sanctioned. The sacred books claimed by the Brahmans as having been issued in the moment of creation from the mouth of Brahma represent Kshatriyas from his arms, Vaisyas from his thigh, and Sudras from his feet; accordingly, while the first

enjoys a rank almost equal to divinity, the latter are denied the rights of common humanity. Their sacred books are filled with relations of the miraculous powers of the Brahmans, millions of years ago, in drying up the sea, vomiting fire on their enemies, and subduing the great nations of the earth. Brahmans are first in rank of society. In the great festivals, when the opulent occasionally make a display of their wealth, the most honored of them are loaded with presents; at entertainments given by those in high places, it is said to amount to many thousand rupees; lands and cattle are also given at their feasts by the pious. So far, indeed, do they rank above every other class, that the daughter of the poorest Brahman is taught to consider a king as no equal match for her.

The Kshatriyas, or military class, are second in dignity. During the era of Hindoo independence, not only generals, but even kings, were chosen from this body, although, since the subjection of India by foreign powers, they have suffered a very severe depression. The only powerful body of this class now remaining are those under the name of Rajpoots, who occupy the wild tract of country bordering on the western desert of India.

The Vaisyas rank third, and belong more to the industrial part of the community, but their functions are not very distinctly explained. By some they are said to be traders, and by others shepherds and cultivators of the soil.

The Sudras stand lowest in the scale of castes, and suffer a degree of degradation greater than befalls any

other class of people not actually bondsmen. They are not only doomed to serve and toil, but, as far as possible, are debarred from improving their circumstances. Even the attempt of a Sudra to accumulate property is declared to be unlawful, and gives pain to the Brahmans. Their spiritual prospects are equally looked down upon, and they are not permitted in public, or openly, to perform a single religious ceremony. Their occupation is principally agricultural, and some exercise the various trades and handicrafts. Their employment is invariably transmitted by hereditary descent from father to son, and they never attempt to vary their method, or make any improvements on the models derived from their ancestors. To taste the food of another caste, or to hold communication with persons of an inferior caste, constitutes the chief of their deadly sins. If one should swallow a morsel of beef, it converts at once the most revered Brahman into a despised and miserable outcast, and he at once loses his caste. The loss of caste to them is the loss of the whole world; henceforth the offender can see no more the face of father, mother, brother, or sister, or even his wife or children; they will fly from his presence as from one infected with some deadly distemper. Those who violate the laws of caste often commit suicide, or take refuge in the caves of the mountains, or some remote place where they can never see a friend.

CHAPTER XIX.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES.

THE Hindoos appear to be imbued with a thorough selfishness, viewing the mass of foreigners only as instruments to promote their own interest and that of their immediate connections. Yet they are courteous and polite, and in meeting with foreigners they invariably make a graceful bow, by raising the right hand to the forehead, often with a cheerful smile upon the face. If this mode of politeness should indicate any degree of sympathy, then they are misrepresented by those who dwell among them.

Nowhere in India is woman elevated to her true position, as the equal or companion of man; she is excluded from the ordinary social intercourse of everyday life. Among the poorer classes she is often made a mere beast of burden, or water-drawer; by none is she deemed worthy of education. The common females exhibit their fondness for jewelry by the display of a profusion of ornaments: they wear rings in their ears and in their noses, necklaces trimmed with jewels, bracelets around their arms and ankles, and rings on their toes and fingers. The rings worn in the nose are put through the side of the nostril, and I have seen some of them from two to three inches in diameter.

The different races and religions, to some extent, may be distinguished by their dress. The Hindoos button the vest on the right side, and the Mohammedans on the left, and the numerous sects often wear different colors and cut of costume. The garments worn by the Hindoos of to-day are probably of the same cut and fashion as those worn centuries before the Christian era. The dress of the men usually consists of two pieces of wide cotton cloth, one of which is wrapped around the waist, and the other thrown loosely over the shoulder; a shawl, formed in the shape of a turban, upon the head, and sandals upon the feet, complete the costume. The women have a single piece of cloth, either silk or cotton, plain or colored, several yards in length, which is partly tied around the waist, forming a kind of garment that reaches to the feet; the rest is then passed around the body and over the head, falling down the back, which gives them rather a graceful appearance. Some of the native men wear loose trousers, as wide as ladies' skirts at the bottom, looped around the ankles. The wealthier classes among the natives, both Mohammedan and Hindoo, indulge freely in dress, wearing the richest silks and finest muslins, trimmed with gold and silver lace, and their hair adorned with rich ornaments. Both rich and poor are very fond of jewelry, and by those who can afford it there is no limit to their decoration, except the extent of their means.

It is said that the Hindoos are not the original possessors of the soil. When they came into the country, some thousands of years ago, they found it already occu-

pied by a people who had strayed over there not long after the dispersion. The descendants of these tribes, who were driven back by the Hindoos, some twenty-five or thirty centuries ago, may still be found in some of the remote parts of India, but their numbers are so few that the Hindoo may be regarded as the native race.

It is said that a certain class of the Hindoo people, in the mountains and upper provinces, club together and carry on a regular system of plunder, which is deeply rooted in their habits. They are not like European robbers, bold desperadoes who set at defiance the order and laws of society, for they are recognized and sanctioned by certain laws in the ancient codes, dividing the spoil between themselves and the state. Even under the British Government, which denounces such a state of things with heavy penalties, it is still carried on to a great extent. They calculate on their dexterity for eluding detection, and some of them often live in the midst of villages, where their practices are well known to the people, but which scarcely render them any the less respected by their neighbors. They go in large bands, under the lead of a chief, and do not commit depredations on their immediate neighbors, or within the territory of their own village. As they pass through the country towns they compel to follow them all who can render any service, threatening instant death in case of refusal. The timid inhabitants on their approach are struck with terror, and seldom attempt resistance, but at once surrender such effects as the marauders may require. At their departure the outlaws utter fearful

oaths against such as may take any steps to discover or bring them to justice. The terror inspired by such threats, the difficulty of bringing evidence before the English courts, and the facility of retreat into the thick jungles by which many of the provinces are surrounded, enable them long to baffle the efforts of the Government officers in their arrest.

The Hindoos are generally active and industrious, eagerly bent on the accumulation of wealth, and though wages are low, and the laboring classes extremely poor, yet capital yields high profits; therefore many of those who have been fortunate in their money-lending, or mercantile pursuits, have attained very great wealth, very little of which is expended in the daily enjoyments of life. Those in the country villages live in low mud houses, eating and living on the bare ground floor, having neither tables nor other furniture. Their dwellings in the large cities are more expensively constructed, but the same custom of living is to a great extent practised both by the rich and poor alike.

CHAPTER XX.

PRODUCTS OF INDIA.

THE rents in India exceed a third of the gross produce of the land, hence a farm can only yield a very small income. The implements of agriculture are of the most imperfect form; the name of plough can scarcely be applied to the instrument used for breaking the soil, for it has neither coulter nor mould-board, the handle has but little power in guiding it, and the share does not penetrate the soil beyond three inches. The harrow is in the shape of a ladder, on which the driver stands to guide the team, and, instead of having teeth, rough bushes are attached to assist in covering the seeds. The hoe and shovel are of the same simple character. The rotation of crops is a principle unknown in India; everything possible is drawn from the ground until it is completely exhausted, when it must be recruited by being left fallow some time; manure is scarcely used at all. In some parts of India the soil is very fertile, and continues to bear fair crops without intermission. The farmers in India spend much time in irrigation, without which the land becomes languid and will die for the want of water. This system requires more labor than working the land itself, for water has to be applied every day during the dry season, which commonly continues

for more than one-half of the year. In addition to the supply of water furnished by the great rivers, princes and wealthy individuals have built immense tanks and pools, or reservoirs, for public use. Every farmer also has wells—some of great depth—on his premises. Hundreds and thousands of people may be seen all over the face of the country drawing water; much is drawn by hand-labor, but the larger farmers draw by bullocks, with a wooden framework over the well; in the top is a pulley-block, through which a rope is rove; at one end is attached a large leathern bucket, at the other the bullocks, and as the water is raised it is emptied into a wooden trough, through which it is conveyed over the fields, in a similar manner to that practised in China.

Rice in India is the principal staff of life, being used to a greater extent than any other grain. It is the food of the highest and the lowest, and is the principal harvest of all Asia. Its production requires more water than any other grain, and the crop is wholly dependent on irrigation. The rice-ground in India is prepared in April, and the seed is sown in May and harvested in August.

Cotton is raised to a considerable extent in India; it used to be inferior to that grown in America, and was less valued by the English dealers, but in later years it has been greatly improved by a change of seed, and now compares favorably with that raised in our Southern States.

Silk is another valuable article in the India trade. It is produced largely in Bengal, and not so much in

the upper provinces. Silk was originally confined to the East, but since its introduction into Europe it has been so much improved that the French and Italian silk is now decidedly superior to the Indian and Chinese. The silk-manufacture in India is of great antiquity, and is carried on to considerable perfection without the aid of machinery. The loom requires two persons to work it, and probably is now the same as that in use many thousand years ago. The shawls of Cashmere, made from the wool of goats, are all woven by hand, and give employment to many thousand people.

Sugar is extensively raised and consumed in India. The cane, however, is said to be inferior in strength to that of the West Indies, and the product is principally made into molasses. It is claimed by many intelligent persons that, if European skill, capital, and machinery, were applied to the production of sugar, India could easily supply the whole British Empire.

Tobacco was not originally raised in India, but, as soon as the Europeans had found it in America, it was introduced into the East. The soil is well adapted for its growth, and, as it is now raised in nearly every part of the empire, a considerable amount is being exported to Europe.

Indigo is extensively grown; in a commercial point of view it has taken the lead of almost every other commodity, and commands a ready sale, both in Europe and America. Although, as the name implies, it is strictly an Indian plant, since the country came into the possession of the English, its culture has been greatly extended.

•

Opium is another great product of India, and had long been raised in the country before it came under British rule. In 1773 the East India Company, becoming aware of its great pecuniary value, assumed the monopoly of its growth. It has ever since been raised under the direction and for the benefit of the Government. It is cultivated largely in the southern provinces, in the districts bordering on the Ganges. It is the juice taken from the seed-vessels of the common white poppy, extracted before the seeds are fully ripe. There are few prettier sights than the poppy-fields present when in full bloom.

Pepper is also an important object of Hindoo agriculture. This valuable spice, for which there is such a general demand, is raised amid the wooded hills of Malabar, shaded by dense forests. It also grows on many of the East Indian islands, but the Malabar pepper is considered the best. It is exported in the two states, black and white, a distinction which arises from the different modes in which the seeds have been prepared.

India has been celebrated not only for the rich products of her soil, but her manufactures have also enjoyed a high reputation from the earliest antiquity, all by hand-labor. The country contains a vast number of inhabitants who are wretchedly poor, and a few who are immensely rich. On the one hand, the great mass of the people live in abject poverty upon the coarsest food, while some of the rich subsist upon the finest luxuries and products of the land.

India is also prominent in the great mines of wealth,

gold, silver, and precious stones, and no expense is spared in obtaining the rich treasure for her princes and great men of the country, which they so highly prize and hoard up. These mines in former years are said to have employed many thousand men to work them; also ingenious mechanics in gold and silver, for cutting, polishing, and setting precious stones: and now, as perhaps centuries ago, the ground is the workman's bench; his hands and feet the vise, and his tools only rude pieces of iron with sharp edges; he carries on his trade in a slovenly manner, waiting till he is sent for by a customer, when he picks up his little set of implements and fire-dish, and hastily walks off to do the work.

India has always produced commodities of great value and beauty, but the demand has much diminished, in consequence of the inability to cope with the improved machinery of Europe and the United States. Cashmere shawls, which are worked by hand-labor, are still exported in large quantities; and many other articles, manufactured without the aid of steam-machinery, are sent abroad; but calicoes, muslins, and silks, are mostly consumed in the country. The European returns for India goods have been limited; the Orientals, generally speaking, have shown very little taste for the productions of the West, and require that their commodities should be paid for in gold and silver, which has a tendency to retard the trade and commerce of any country.

By not having a rainfall in the usual way, as in

Europe and America, the agriculturist in India is placed at a disadvantage. Rain only falls in certain districts in a specific time, or occurs at certain periods, called the rainy season, and in general there is but one rainy season during the year, commencing in June and continuing till October, which is during the southwest monsoons; little or no rain falling in the other months. In the peninsula of India, however, there are in some places two rainy seasons: one during the southwest monsoon on the west side, the other in the time of the northeast monsoon on the east side of the country. It is said that the quantity of rain which sometimes falls in a short time is very great; that the roads become like rivers, and the fields like lakes; but this only happens at long intervals; generally speaking, it falls gently, even in the absence of clouds, with bright sunshine. These heavy showers are generally accompanied with terrific thunder and lightning. For some hours lightning is seen almost without intermission; sometimes it only illuminates the sky, and shows the clouds near the horizon; at others it lights up the distant hills, and again leaves all in darkness, when in an instant it reappears in vivid flashes. During all this time thunder never ceases to roar, and is only silenced by some nearer sound which echoes through the ear with such a sudden and tremendous crash as can scarcely fail to strike the insensible heart with fear and reverence for Him who holds the elements within his grasp, and the world at his control.

CHAPTER XXI.

CALCUTTA TO BENARES.

January 15th.—We have been traveling for nearly five months, and have reached a point more than fourteen thousand miles westward all the way, to find the East. I was told at home that Japan, China, and India, were all in the East, and we still go on westward, turning neither to the south nor north, and I should like to know how much farther we have to go before we find ourselves in the East. We have now completed about one-half of our tour around the globe. But more perplexing than all other philosophy is that composed of geography and astronomy, which places the United States of America right under our feet, and, worst of all, tells us that New York, our good old town, is turned topsy-turvy! It requires a great power of specific gravity to realize this philosophy; and, more bothering still, although I am quite sure that I sit and stand right-end upward, with ground below, and sky above, as I gaze from the hotel veranda, the people in the streets of Calcutta and the ships on the Hoogly River are the same. I am told, from the standpoint at home, that the people in India, and the ships upon the sea, with their passengers, are all wrong-end upward, the keels of ships pointing toward New York, with their masts the contrary way. To

solve this problem, I wish that some one could only send me a telegram through, either below or above. If these things are so, there is something more in going around the world than appears on the surface.

Every intelligent person knows that it is by the mighty power of steam applied to locomotion, by land and sea, that we are enabled to complete a belt of traveling around the globe in a comparatively short period to what we could a few years ago, when we had to traverse the sea by sailing-ships, and the land by coaches.

I recall to memory some twenty-five years ago when the gold excitement broke out in California. Little did I then dream that it would ever be my privilege to cross over the Western prairies and see the Indian tribes, and other features of pictorial mountain scenery. Far distant was the thought, when I was a boy, studying geography of the world in a country school, that it would ever be my lot to cross the Rocky Mountains by rail at an elevation of eight thousand feet, and scale the Sierra Nevada range at an altitude of over seven thousand feet; and the remotest of my thoughts could not comprehend that it would ever be my privilege to make the tour around the world in so short a period of time.

This evening we leave Calcutta by the half-past ten o'clock train for Delhi, distance nine hundred and ninety-six miles, fare eighty-eight rupees. It was a beautiful moonlight evening. The terminus of the East India Railway is situated directly opposite Calcutta, across the Hoogly. Here we presented ourselves for a journey of twenty-four hours. A telegram from up the road has

been received that a train of cars ran off the track last night, killing and wounding a large number of passengers, which to hear was not congenial to our feelings. The Indian sleeping-cars are a modification of the American system, and, although they do not in India furnish bedding and attendance, there is no extra charge made for the carriage, and it was cheaper to buy bedquilts and pillows than to pay three dollars a night, as in America, for the accommodation; and the bedding is also required in the hotels, where it is only customary to provide a bedstead, a mattress, one sheet, and perhaps one hard pillow. On leaving the depot at Calcutta we made our beds in the best possible manner, and should have enjoyed a comfortable night's repose, but the train stopping at short intervals all through the night, taking in and putting off passengers, very much broke our rest.

January 16th.—This morning early we arrive at Newadi, two hundred and twenty-nine miles from Calcutta. The day is bright and pleasant, but warm. This little town is pleasantly situated at the foot of the hills; here an additional engine is attached to the train to assist in pulling up the steep incline, through a deep cut in the road. The country in the vicinity is under a good state of cultivation, and the poppy-fields are numerous. At nine o'clock we arrive at a small town called Mananpur, stopping long enough to breakfast.

The greater part of the plain of India is destitute of heavy forests, and I may say the greater part of the continent of Asia, except on the neighboring islands near the equator, where they are very dense, although a large

part of Hindostan is in jungle, which is a brushwood from ten to twelve feet in height, thickly covering the ground.

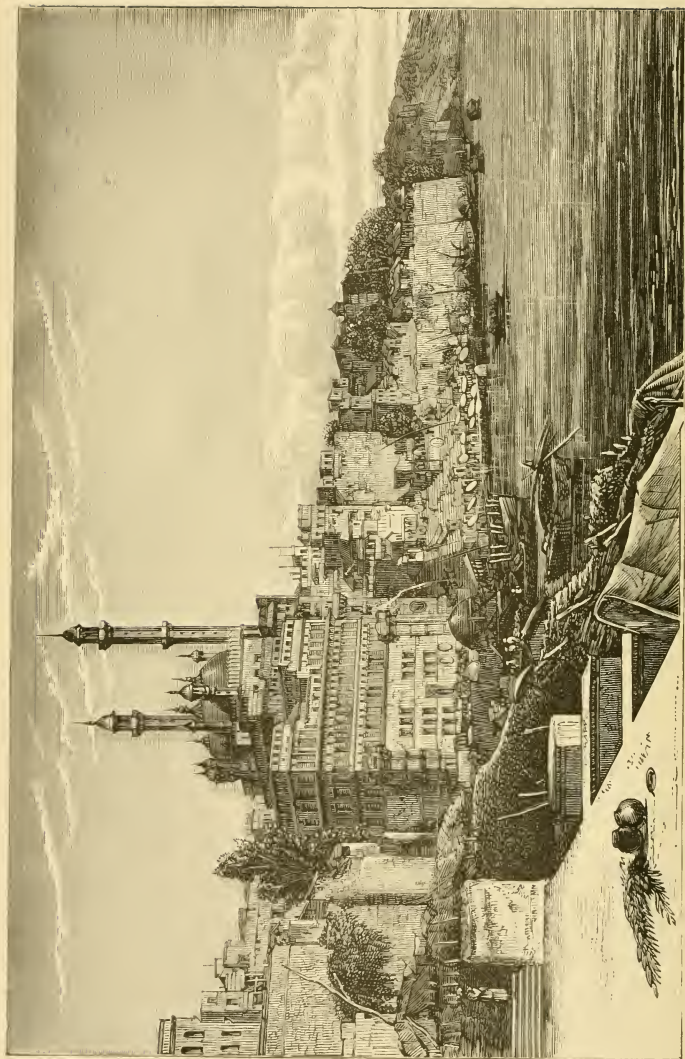
At two o'clock we stop at Pakowr and take dinner. This station was one of the first places plundered and destroyed by the rebels during the insurrection of 1857. The bungalows of the railway-officers were destroyed by fire. The Ranis palace was sacked, and the native town overrun by eight thousand insurgents, armed with bows and arrows, and battle-axes; many of the inhabitants were barbarously murdered, others fled to the jungle for their lives, and it was a long time before the town was reclaimed. Shortly after leaving Pakowr we came to Rajmahab, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, a town of considerable note, and at the station (called Talijeria) is an interesting missionary establishment which was founded by the Rev. W. Puxley.

Sultanganja is the next station, and is of some repute. It was here—when the railroad company was making excavations for extension—that a curious Buddhist image, made of copper, ten feet high, was dug out of a mound. The country is covered with Buddhist temples, many of them going to decay. Shortly after leaving the village we pass through a tunnel, nine hundred feet in length, the only one upon the road. The country through which we ride, so far as we can see, is composed of a plain, dotted with towns and hamlets, and in the distance we obtain an occasional view of the mountains, which makes the ride one of interest.

The train stops nearly an hour in the city of Patana,

beautifully situated on the banks of the Ganges, and containing a large native population. The streets are narrow, and the houses densely crowded together. The rooms are still shown where the massacre of the Europeans took place. The victims are buried in the town, and a monument is erected over them.

At six o'clock in the evening we arrive at Mogul Serai, where we make a change on a branch-road six miles in length leading to the Ganges, where we found carriages in readiness to convey the passengers across the river, over a bridge made of boats joined together, and on reaching the opposite side of the stream we had about three miles to ride to reach Sekrole, or the cantonment, the place where all the European population are located. On our arrival in the holy city we put up at Clark's Hotel, which is the best kept in the place. We were furnished with a good suite of rooms, including a bath, at ten rupees a day for us two. Mr. Clark is an Englishman, of a high-toned character. He has been in the country for the last twenty-five years, and married a native lady of education and accomplishments, who speaks several languages. There was no place in the town where we could have been more highly entertained, or procured more information, than at Mr. Clark's hotel.



BENARES FROM THE GANGES.

CHAPTER XXII.

BENARES.

THE city of Benares is beautifully situated on the left bank of the Ganges, and contains two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. It is of great antiquity, and is conceded to be the home of Hindooism. Her temples number over a thousand, exclusive of the numerous smaller shrines occupied by idols, which meet the eye in every direction. The number of idols worshiped in this city by the people is reputed to be not less than half a million! The city extends from two to three miles along the bank of the river, surmounting an elevation of about eighty feet above the water's surface. Above the river, on the side of the embankment, rise some noble buildings, many of them four and five stories high, all constructed of stone. Owing to the rise, and consequent swift current, of the river at certain seasons of the year, some of their foundations have sunk for several feet, thus partially destroying their beauty. Many of these buildings are the palaces of wealthy Indian princes. A row of palaces, temples, and ghauts, extends along the river-front for over a mile.

Dr. Sherring, of the London Missionary Society at Benares, said that the early history of this sacred city of the Hindoos is involved in much obscurity; that it is

doubtless of great antiquity, and may even date back from the time when the Aryan race first spread itself over Northern India. When it was first built, and by what prince or patriarch, is altogether unknown. While many cities and nations have fallen into decay and perished, her sun has never gone down. As a queen, she has ever received the willing homage of her subjects, scattered over all India; and, as a lover, she has secured their affection and regard.

And now, after the lapse of so many years, Dr. Sherring said that the city still maintains most of the freshness and all the beauty of her early youth. No sight in the world probably can surpass that of Benares, as seen in the distance from the river-side. He also speaks of her as a city which in wealth, dignity, and sanctity, is among the foremost in all Asia.

January 17th.—This being the Sabbath, we attend the Episcopal church, situated in the English part of the city. There were present about one hundred Europeans and ten natives.

January 18th.—This morning, after an early breakfast, we procure a guide and carriages, and ride to the Ganges. On the way we pass the Durga Kund Temple, which is a lofty and graceful building of pyramidal form, the lines being broken by numerous turrets, or clusters of turrets, the whole being covered with elaborate carving, and with carved figures of sacred animals. It is located in a small inclosure, surrounded by an open colonnade. It stands upon twelve elaborately-carved pillars, and is surmounted by a dome, with a cupola at

each corner, and a bell is suspended from the centre of the dome. This temple is held very sacred in Hindoo estimation, and crowds of worshipers were gathered around it to pay their devotions and strew their offerings on the shrine of the goddess.

But this temple is better known by Europeans by the name of the Monkey Temple, for there are hundreds of monkeys—all living deities—which crowd not only the building but the immediate neighborhood, thus giving it its name. Fine, fat, well-fed fellows they are, of a rich orange color; from the venerable patriarch to the babe in the mother's arms, they are seen climbing gracefully from the turret to the pinnacle, grinning and chattering in fear or in anger, occasionally leaping to the ground to scramble for a few handfuls of parched corn thrown to them by the devotees. Dangerous neighbors they must be in such a crowded neighborhood; but the Hindoos venerate the ape, and their sacred character protects them from all molestation.

On leaving the Monkey Temple we are driven to the river-bank of the Ganges, and conducted through some of the principal palaces. Ascending a flat roof, several charts are seen of the heavens, engraved on stone, and some of the instruments formerly used in astronomical observations, a few of which are of gigantic size, but are fast falling to decay. The mural quadrant, for taking the sun's altitude, consists of a wall eleven feet high and nine feet thick; here is another instrument for ascertaining the declination and distance from the meridian of any planet or star, occupying a space thirty-six feet in

length by five in breadth; and the remains of other appliances of a similar character are seen here. They were doubtless constructed over a thousand years ago.

On the bank of the river, connected with one temple, is a large well, some twenty feet in depth. The stench of the water was as bad as that from a common sewer, occasioned by the devotees throwing in their offerings, consisting of small bunches of flowers and grains of rice; and yet, as fast as it could be dipped up with buckets, the miserable creatures drank it as holy water. Here we saw bull-worship, peacock-worship, and other modes of worship too obscene for description, and every morning the place is thronged with devotees.

We enter a boat and sail along the river-front, where we witnessed the washing and head-shaving of dead bodies, and their transference to the funeral-piles. For a long distance down the banks of the river were varied crowds of bathers, monster idols, ghauts, and funeral-pyres—these vast crowds all seeking salvation from the waters of the Ganges.

We progress slowly along with our boat till we come to the large mosque with its two lofty minarets towering up to a great height. Here we discharge our boat, and return to the carriage through the busy crowd by land. Where this mosque is situated the river-bank is at least eighty feet high from the water's edge. We ascend to the roof by upward of a hundred steps, worn into deep hollows by the feet of the multitude who are continually passing up and down. From here we obtained a magnificent view of the city and surrounding

country, and the Ganges winding its silver-like thread through the valley till lost in the distance. We admired the minarets for their simplicity and boldness; they have an altitude of one hundred and forty-seven feet.

Passing through the crowd we next arrive at the temple of Shiva, commonly known as the Golden Temple. This is the reigning deity of Benares, and receives more adoration than any other idol, and yet there is nothing very elaborate about it, situated in a narrow and the most crowded street in the city; the throng was really so dense, we thought that it would be impossible to enter. It is erected back from the street in the centre of a little inclosure, consisting of three small rooms, raised on a stone platform, and crowned with three domes, two of which are said to be overlaid with gold, from which it derived its name by the Europeans as the Golden Temple. In each room there is a large holy stone, and the worship consists in throwing rice, flowers, and money, upon these stones. There is an inner temple in which only the priests are allowed to enter; within the inclosure adjacent to the temple is what is called the Well of Knowledge, into which flowers and grains of rice are thrown as offerings to the gods, and the water is drawn and drunk by the numerous devotees. This well is surrounded by a handsome colonnade of forty pillars. Immediately to the east of the well is the stone figure of a large bull, about seven feet high, dedicated to one of their principal gods.

The entire surroundings are rich in temples of elabo-

rate workmanship, among which the most worthy of notice is one to Anpurana, a goddess who is supposed to save from hunger; hence it is always thronged by beggars. Here is also one dedicated to the sun, one to the planet Saturn, and, I think, there is another to the moon. Not far from these temples is a famous well called Kal Kup, or the Well of Fate. Over the framework covering the well is a square hole, so arranged in relation to the sun that at twelve o'clock its rays, passing through the hole, strike upon the water below, indicating mid-day, and at this hour it is crowded by those wishing to search into the secrets of the future.

In returning to the hotel we pass by the Queen's College, where some three hundred and fifty native youths are instructed in principles quite the opposite to those inculcated in the idolatrous scenes just before witnessed. It is a fine building, in the Gothic style, containing large rooms, a library stored with a rare collection of Oriental manuscripts, and an Indian museum. The grounds of the college are very extensive, and beautifully laid out.

January 19th.—This afternoon we are accompanied by an experienced guide and ride out into the country, some four or five miles distant, to Sarnath. The immense ruins of Sarnath are of great interest. Here are two towers, distant about twenty-five hundred feet from each other. The Hindoos have a tradition that a man, by the name of Lorik, was accustomed to jump in a single leap from tower to tower; he is reputed to have resided in the vicinity of these towers, and was the owner of a large number of milch-cows, and after he

milked the cows in the morning, with the milk in hand, he gave one leap from the top, jumping from one tower to the other without spilling the milk. Both of the towers are in ruins, and only enough is left to testify to their great magnitude. The first tower which we approached was constructed on a high mound; according to a recent survey made, it is one hundred and twenty-eight feet above the general level of the country, and is constructed entirely of brickwork. The second is also of brick, faced with elaborately-cut stone, and with images in some of the niches: the faces are more or less richly decorated with a profusion of flowering foliage, the south face being altogether plain.

The remains of these large Buddhist establishments cover some ten or twelve acres, and the parts of the towers remaining would have been torn down long ago, but the brick and mortar are so firmly combined that they are like one perfect mass of stone, and the only way by which the great iron bolts and rods are taken out by the poor class of people is with chisel and hammer.

In the early ages this town was the cradle of Buddhism. Buddha, according to tradition, was a prince; he renounced royal state, wealth, family, friends, everything, and repaired to Sarnath; here he remained in seclusion for five years, during which time the study of his profession continued, and it resulted in his conviction that he had become perfectly purified. Here his teachings began nearly twenty-four hundred years ago; and, according to the faith of his disciples, his gospel has spread all over the East, and it is to continue to radiate until it shall

pervade the entire earth. According to statistics, the numerous sects of the religious world comprise nine hundred million believers, of which the Buddhists claim three hundred and fifteen million. But, according to the teachings of the Bible, we know that the gospel of Christ, the King of glory, the divine ruler of both heaven and earth, shall spread from the rivers to the uttermost ends of the earth, till all, from the least to the greatest, shall know him.

Dr. Sherring states that the Hindoos are good grammarians but meagre historians, and they possess no single record, among the ten thousand separate manuscript works of which their ancient literature is said to be composed, on the historical correctness of which one can place much reliance. Their stories are so intermingled with different events—the web of the one is so intimately interwoven with the woof of the other, and the two mixed up as a whole—that the finest microscopic intellects of Europe, after patient and long-continued examination, have been baffled in the attempt to discover which is fiction and which is fact. They have also more ways of spelling the same words than any other people I have ever known.

January 20th.—This morning, as usual, we ride out to the Ganges. On our approaching the sacred river we saw thousands of people, some going to, others returning from, the bath in the waters. Here we saw a tank on the river-bank, about thirty-five feet square, and ten feet deep; it has stone steps leading to the water below, surrounded by Brahmans, both men and women, making

offerings, which consisted of crumbs of bread, rice, small bunches of flowers, and leaves. The stench arising from the tank was almost unendurable, and yet they bathed in and even drank of this water, believing that it will purify them and wash away every sin that they are guilty of. According to tradition, in ancient times many devotees sacrificed themselves in this tank, and, before doing so, they solicited from their idols the promise that they should, in the next life, have a residence in some rich man's house of high caste !

In sailing along the river-front, we saw great numbers of Hindoos, men and women, bathing in the Ganges, and others upon the banks performing their religious ceremonies, hoping thus to wash away their sins; some were worshiping the river itself; others upon their knees, with closed eyes gazing toward the sun, praying to it, were so much absorbed in their devotions as apparently to be unconscious of the presence of those around them. Every now and then we saw smoke arising on the river's edge, caused by the burning of the Hindoo dead; we passed pile after pile, some burning and others making ready for the cremation.

The burning of dead bodies is the most loathsome sight ever witnessed. The funeral-pile is first prepared by setting four stakes in the ground, about two feet apart and four feet high, and the wood, consisting of about a cart-load, is piled between the stakes two feet in height; then the corpse is laid upon the pile, covered over with sandal-wood shavings, and afterward the rest of the wood is placed on, to the height of the stakes.

At length, when all is in readiness, the family of the deceased, headed by the priest, marches in procession seven times around the funeral-pile, torches in hand; on the last round the priest lights up the pile, and his followers also apply their torches in turn. In a few moments the sacred pile is in a complete blaze, and continues to burn until the whole mass is reduced to ashes, when the dust is carefully collected by the mourners and thrown into the Ganges. After this ceremony the priest is not allowed to touch any human being for the space of fourteen days, lest he should be defiled. It is considered a great crime unless the fire to light up the funeral-pile is taken from the house of some Sudras, the lowest and most despised caste in India—a caste which, if one of its members should be touched, contaminates the party touching him, who thus forfeits his caste, and becomes a vagabond upon the face of the earth. The Sudras caste, knowing that the Brahmans dare not burn their dead without fire from their dwellings, often charge the rich enormous sums. Shortly before our visit, a Hindoo prince had given one thousand rupees for fire to burn the remains of some distinguished friend. Up to within a few years, it was the custom of the Hindoos to burn the widow or wife of the deceased husband alive with him upon the same funeral-pile; but, since the English came into power, they have interposed and put a stop to this inhuman practice.

There is a dance practised by the Brahmans, both in Japan and India, called the devil-dance, of which the priest is at the head, having his forehead smeared with

ashes and streaks of red paint over his face; he wears a high white cap, with red tassels, and a long white robe reaching to his feet. In his right hand he holds a spear ornamented with bells, that jingle harshly every time the ground is struck by it. As the band of tomtoms strike up, the Brahman priest makes his appearance from behind the curtain upon the stage, when the devotees show him the offerings they intend to present, but he appears wholly unconscious; then the tomtoms are beaten faster and louder, when he exclaims in a loud voice, "I am god, the only true god!" Then the deluded devotees crowd around the priest and offer oblations, soliciting answers to their questions as to the future. During the performance, which continues for an hour or more, the priest cuts and hacks himself with a sharp instrument until completely covered with blood. When all is over he casts off his bloody garments, picks up the sacrifices, and walks off quietly to the fountain of water to wash the donors' sins away. The caste of Brahmans believe that this mode of worship will drive away malignant spirits, and inform them of future events.

There are many other peculiar modes of worship practised by the Brahmans in their temples, such as beating on drums and blowing of horns, to call the gods out. Some have a cylinder filled with something which, when turned, makes a loud noise; when the gods answer, they join in singing and clapping of hands. There is one temple where a man stands to guard the door, and to put a fan into the hands of those who were desirous of making offerings to the idol, of which fanning is one;

a second man rings a bell to awaken the idol, and a third man places the sacrificial dishes before the idol and deals out the food; a fourth holds up a looking-glass to the idol, while the fifth beats a drum or blows a horn for its amusement; the sixth acts the part of treasurer, and the seventh washes and cleans the dishes used in the temple. In some temples there are those who prepare the idol's bed, and present a toothpick after it is supposed to have taken its meals. Such is the idolatrous and foolish superstition of the deluded Brahmans.

Here is a temple called Bhaironath, protected by a large idol in the shape of a dog. The confectioners near the temple keep a good stock of images of the dog made of sugar, which are offered to the idol. A Brahman is stationed here whose duty it is to protect persons from the wicked influences of evil spirits; this is done by a peacock's feather, which he waves over them. A stranger, seeing it, is under the impression that the Brahman is employed to drive away flies, which are said to fill the temple during the hot season, being attracted by the small sugar images. On entering this temple, a Brahman is seen standing at the door, holding in his hand a cup made out of cocoanut-shell, in which he expects all visitors to drop their offerings.

Sankata Devi is a temple which is visited principally by barren women, and their one prayer is that the goddess will bestow on them the gift of children. There is a story to the effect that one poor woman, after offering flowers, began beating her head on the floor, and with

tears was supplicating the goddess to grant her a child, saying: "I have wealth, so that I can feed daily a thousand people, but I am still unhappy and most miserable, and have no one to leave my wealth to. Is it your wish when I die that it shall be left to strangers? Oh, give me only one child, and I will be your slave for life! Even a daughter will be preferable to none at all! If you will but grant my request, I vow to feed daily one hundred Brahmans in this temple for one year!"

I have only enumerated a few of the most prominent temples in the city of Benares; to speak of them all would require months of examination, and fill volumes in description. Shrines and temples are here more numerous than in any other city in the world.

The Buddhist priests live principally in and around their temples, and are seldom seen in the streets. They are readily known by their large yellow garments, which they wear wrapped around the body, by being bare-footed, and with the hair shaved close to the head. They restrain their feelings from all attachment to the fair sex, and no woman dare venture to approach a priest unless to perform some religious duty, or to present some pious offering. According to our informants, the principle of religious homage among the Buddhists is that God, or his substitute, is in a temple, whom they worship through idols, believing that idols shall stand between God and man. Instead of calling upon God directly, they supplicate the idols, through which they claim to receive answers to prayer. Their opposition to the destruction of animal life, theft, lying, adultery,

and drinking ardent spirits, is a good qualification ; and if they only looked to God, instead of worshipping their idols, they would be as devout a race as any on the earth.

During our stay in Benares, every day regularly some three or four Brahmans assembled in front of the hotel, exhibiting snakes of the most deadly character. They would coil them round their necks, and even carry them in their bosoms. The reptiles were trained in such a manner that they would make a leap ; by speaking to them they would raise or put down their heads, and the Brahmans could charm the snakes in any way they seemingly wished.

From actual statistics it has been estimated that in all India there are from twenty to thirty thousand deaths from poisonous serpents every year ! Snakes live and multiply not only in the jungles and open country, but in villages and cities. They often make their homes in the thatch of dwellings, and drop down from the rafters and lurk about the kitchen-utensils ; and sometimes are found in the parlors, and secrete themselves in the beds. I listened to many thrilling narratives of adventures with these unwelcome visitors. I had heard of these dangerous reptiles before entering India ; so, on retiring for the night, I usually made a diligent search through the bed-chamber, and overhauled the sheets upon the bedstead, in order to guard against the presence of some hidden reptile. Among the most dangerous and deadly is the hooded cobra, which often attains the length of ten feet or more. In the south of India snakes have often been

captured from fifteen to twenty feet in length. A gentleman traveling with us in the cars said that last summer he captured a cobra of large size in his bed, as he was about to retire for the night.

During the winter months the snakes of India remain in holes, and only come out during the wet weather of the summer months, and are considered to be the greatest of all plagues that have ever been in the country.

We visited the Maharajah Palace, belonging to a distinguished Indian prince, who keeps three hundred servants and as many horses, and nine elephants. The prince was not at home, but his house is always open to European and American tourists; so the servants showed us through the numerous apartments, which were elegantly furnished, and the walls covered with valuable ancient paintings.

We also visited the private residence of Baboo Gokool, who gave us a cordial welcome. Among other things, he said that he was most happy to meet people from the far West. He had read our country's history in his youth, and believed us to be a great people. Before leaving, he showed us through a room filled with curious things—weapons of war, and a large variety of gold, silver, and copper coins, which were in use some two or three thousand years ago, and precious stones which he had collected from time to time in different parts of India. He saw that we admired the stones, and, opening the case, requested each of our party to select one of our choice. We offered to pay, by presenting money, which he refused to take, saying that he was

only too happy to give. It is said that the rajahs of India are very benevolent, and particularly so to those whom they fancy.

We also visited one of the principal warehouses, where were manufactured and kept for sale the most costly and elegant brocade fabrics in the world. They are worn by the native princes, baboos, and rajahs; they are formed of silk and the purest of gold, woven in patterns five yards long and one yard wide. A pattern never costs less than three hundred dollars, and thence upward to six or seven hundred. The merchants took several pieces out of the cases for our inspection, at the same time requesting us to register our names as purchasers, but there is very little of this costly fabric sold to tourists. The merchants in the East are amiable and everywhere polite.

We saw a first-class wedding pass through the city, marching in procession, which reached a long distance, and was accompanied by two bands of music. The procession consisted of horses exquisitely decorated with scarlet blankets trimmed with gold and silver lace, and a profusion of colored ribbons, led by men dressed in rich uniforms. The groom rode in the rear upon horseback, covered with a rich canopy, bordered by a crimson veil trimmed with gold fringe. After the display they marched to the bride's residence.

According to the custom of the country, betrothals are made by a class of persons outside of the families, who are supposed to be well acquainted with the caste and circumstances of the parties, without the knowledge

of the young man and woman who are to be joined together for life. This is done when the parties are mere infants, by the parents entering into a contract that their children shall be married upon attaining a certain age. After this has been done, it is impossible to break the engagement, unless one or both of them should die. From the time of the engagement till the marriage, the intended bride is required to maintain the strictest seclusion. Whenever friends call upon her parents, she is expected to retire; she must be closely veiled when going into the streets, and she is debarred from all social intercourse with those of her sex with whom she formerly associated.

The office of match-maker is considered honorable, and both men and women are employed to conduct nuptial negotiations, great confidence being reposed in their judgment. By some castes the selection and contracts are made by the parents, and in all cases the boy and girl have no voice in the engagement to be made. The presents given at the betrothal are said to be very valuable, consisting of silks, rice, cloth, fruits, and sometimes money.

Here, as in other countries, there is a great contrast between a wedding and a funeral. While the Hindoos burn the dead body, their next-door neighbors, the Chinese, bury the dead. We saw a Chinese funeral procession pass through the streets of Penang. The corpse was borne upon long poles, resting upon the shoulders of twenty-six men. The coffin is constructed of thick plank, perfectly tight and strong, which is laid upon a

shelf in some temple for several years. Those who are rich have a great part of their wealth, or treasure, put in the coffin with the body, and watched by a guard both night and day till the years of probation have expired. At length the coffin is removed to the family field, and covered over with a large mound of earth resembling a huge hay-stack.

CHAPTER XXIII.

LUCKNOW AND CAWNPORE.

January 20th.—This afternoon at two o'clock we leave Benares, the holy city of the Hindoos, *en route* for Delhi, we having at Calcutta paid for a through-ticket to that city, with the privilege of stopping on the road wherever we desired, not to exceed sixty days from the date of issue. We pass through endless fields of rice, wheat, and millet, orchards of bananas, tamarinds, and mangoes, the latter tree just now in bloom, filling the air with a perfume sweet as that of the acacia. In other fields are large herds of cattle, flocks of sheep, and goats. Occasionally we passed by groups of slender men and children upon the roadside. The few women whom we saw were gayly attired, with a profusion of silver ornaments, ear-rings, nose-rings, and anklets. The surroundings were so very pleasant that we regretted when night-fall came upon us.

January 21st.—This morning at five o'clock we arrive in the city of Lucknow, and put up at the Imperial Hotel, board five rupees a day, and have good entertainment. Lucknow is beautifully situated on the banks of the river Goomtee, which is spanned by an iron bridge. Previous to the Sepoy mutiny, Lucknow was a purely

Oriental city of great extent and picturesque appearance. An intelligent writer, who visited Lucknow in 1856, thus describes the view from the river: "The city, which extends for several miles along the river-bank, seemed one mass of majestic and beautiful buildings of dazzling whiteness, crowned with domes of burnished gold, while scores of minarets were looming up in every direction; the whole picture was like a dream of fairy-land; but during the mutiny the city was bombarded by the English troops and greatly injured, and the general features of the city have been much altered."

The English settlement of Lucknow is very prettily built. The buildings are of brick, covered with stucco, giving them the appearance of white marble, with beautiful gardens and macadamized roads. The city itself contains about three hundred thousand inhabitants. We made the best of our time by visiting some of the principal places of interest in the city, some of which I will briefly describe.

The Martinière is a peculiarly fantastic building of every species of architecture, adorned with stucco images, huge lions with lamps instead of eyes, mandarins, and a host of gods and goddesses. The interior contains some handsome apartments, many of them with frescoed ceilings. It was said to have been originally designed as a palace for the nawab; he, however, died before it was finished, and left funds for its endowment as a school, ordering his body to be buried under its floor; but, during the rebellion, the mutineers opened his tomb and scattered the remains.

We next proceed to the ruins of buildings destroyed in the mutiny, these remaining nearly in the same state they were when they were left; and here for five months a little band of Christians held out, with unexampled courage and endurance, against hordes of well-armed, well-provisioned, and ferocious enemies. All the buildings are in a terribly shattered state, bearing numerous marks of shot and shell, and every point has a sad story connected with it. Here are shown the remains of a portico, in the fall of which some twenty or more brave soldiers were buried; here is shown another room underneath the ground, where the women and children took refuge from the hail of shot. Not far from this spot is the churchyard where those who perished during the siege were buried; here is the grave of Sir Henry Lawrence, Major Banks, and many other English officers and soldiers. The church was nearly leveled to the ground during the siege.

We hire a carriage and drive out some few miles into the country, to the garden-house formerly belonging to the King of Oude. In the garden was pointed out to us the tomb of Sir Henry Havelock, a plain obelisk with a long inscription. The country roads are level and beautifully macadamized.

The King of Oude, whose possessions were the last to be seized by the East India Company, reigned here in great splendor. When the British authorities informed him that they required his extensive and rich dominions, and that he must lay down his sceptre and his crown, the governor-general proposed to settle on

him a large pension, but the king was reluctant to resign his authority, and refused to sign any deed of conveyance. When compelled to retire, he sent his queen to England to plead his cause before Queen Victoria; but before she returned the mutiny of 1857 broke out, and the king's fate was sealed. He now resides on the Hoogly, some two or three miles below Calcutta. By many this seizure of the territory of Oude, and the sale of the personal property of the king, are regarded as the immediate cause of the rebellion in which so much property was destroyed and life sacrificed, not only in Lucknow, but in numerous other places in India. Lucknow is where the torch of rebellion was first lighted, and shortly after its lurid glare was seen spreading like wildfire over many parts of the peninsula.

January 22d.—This morning we resume our tour by the ten-o'clock train; at one o'clock we stop at Cawnpore, situated on the banks of the Ganges, upon a flat and sandy plain. It is a large military station, and the cantonments comprise an area of ten miles, with a population of seventy-five thousand, exclusive of the military and the European residents; there is, besides, accommodation for seven thousand troops. This was the scene of some of the most fearful atrocities of the mutiny of 1857. Cawnpore has acquired a melancholy interest in the eyes of every Englishman, if not the whole civilized world, and many tourists stop to visit the memorials which exist of those events. The sad story is familiar to most readers.

Memorial Garden is a large spot of ground inclosed,

neatly laid out, and beautifully kept. On a raised mound is the memorial erected over the well in which a large number of Christians, chiefly women and children, were cast, by order of the rebel Nena Sahib, and left to die. It consists of a raised circular stone platform, on which is placed a statue of a female draped figure with wings, surrounded by a Gothic stone screen of beautiful design and workmanship. At the foot of the mound on either side are inclosures containing the tombs of those who fell in the battles fought in and around Cawnpore during the mutiny. No native is allowed, on any pretext whatever, to enter this garden without a permit from the authorities.

About a mile from the river is the intrenchment in which General Wheeler, with his small band of soldiers, and the Europeans and half-caste residents, were assembled, and for twenty-one days held the city in the face of a continual fire from Nena's troops. No vestige of the intrenchment now remains, but the well into which the women and children were thrown is still to be seen.

The chief events of the mutiny centred at Cawnpore. This station was occupied by Sir Hugh Wheeler, with a small body of English troops, who had under their protection several hundred women and children, belonging chiefly to the city and neighborhood. Having no fortress, they intrenched themselves by throwing up earthworks on the open plain. There were two small buildings in the place which they occupied, with a piece of land less than an acre in size; there were nine hun-

dred persons in all within this narrow space. The Sepoys opened upon them a murderous fire; their provisions were falling short; famine stared them in the face; and, owing to the close confinement and the heat of the scorching sun, many of them were dying from day to day, while some went raving mad. At length the enemy began to pour red-hot shot within the encampment, which fired and burned their buildings. During this fearful moment they received an offer from the rebel leader, Nena Sahib, that if they would abandon the intrenchments and the treasure which they had been guarding, the survivors should be furnished with boats and an escort to take them down the Ganges to Allahabad, where they would have safe quarters, and be out of the reach of their foes. They declined this offer until the rebel had signed the contract, and confirmed his promise with a solemn oath, which he did. Finally, conveyances were provided for taking the sick and wounded to the river, about a mile distant. They were getting into the boats, when, by the order of Nena Sahib, who betrayed his trust, a battery opened upon them, by which a large number were killed, and a few boats hastily rowed across the river, but they were afterward captured by the Sepoys, the men all killed, and the women and children carried back to the camp to die a more cruel death. They were for several weeks incarcerated in a building scarcely large enough to contain them, where they were most shamefully and brutally treated by the Sepoy troops. A rumor having reached the rebels that an English military force was on the

march from Allahabad to rescue the captives, an order was given at once that the women and children should be slain, doubtless not an unwelcome order to those who were suffering a thousand deaths. At sunset, on the 15th of July, 1857, volleys of shot were fired into the doors and windows of the building, until all were supposed to be dead. The next morning it was found that a number were still alive; on being brought out in a frantic state, they either threw themselves or were thrown by the enemy into a large well, near the prison-house. The number of women and children who perished in this most brutal manner was nearly two hundred. The English army, under General Havelock, entered Cawnpore the day after this fearful massacre, driving out the rebels before them; and when they reached the building in which the poor victims had been murdered, covered with blood, locks of hair, and pieces of torn garments, the soldiers were horrified, almost maddened, by the fearful sight, and killed every rebel within their reach.

At Futtehghur, a few miles farther up the Ganges, General Wheeler and his men were intrenched. This place has long been one of the chief stations of American mission-work; all the mission-buildings were destroyed by the rebels, the foreign residents either shot or put to the sword, the English officers being the first to suffer. The survivors, including four American missionary families, attempted to escape in boats, hoping to reach Allahabad. The Americans were Rev. Messrs. Freeman, Campbell, Johnson, and McMullen, with their

wives and children, together with others, amounting in all to one hundred and thirty persons. While floating down the Ganges with a swift current, they were constantly in fear of the natives; twice they were fired on, and a lady and child killed. On the fourth day out, the boats ran aground upon a sand-bar. Not being able to get them off, the whole party went on shore and concealed themselves in the jungles or long grass, in constant fear of being captured by the enemy, and with little hope of escape. Here they engaged in prayer, making preparation for death, the missionaries earnestly exhorting them to put their trust in Him who would bring salvation even in death. On the following day they were discovered by a body of Sepoys, who made them prisoners, and took them to Cawnpore. They were tied together with ropes, and compelled to take up their march on foot; they being nearly exhausted with long fasting and anxiety of mind, as night came on they were allowed to lie down upon the ground, in the open air, the Sepoys keeping guard over them to prevent their escape. Early the next morning they were marched into Cawnpore, before Nena Sahib, who instantly ordered them to be drawn up in line on the parade-ground, where they were shot down. The record of these terrible scenes was derived from four native Christians, who were the only survivors.

On leaving Cawnpore we go to Agra, one hundred and forty miles distant. On our arrival in this ancient city at midnight, we are driven from hotel to hotel, all over-filled; finally, we succeed in getting into the Harrison

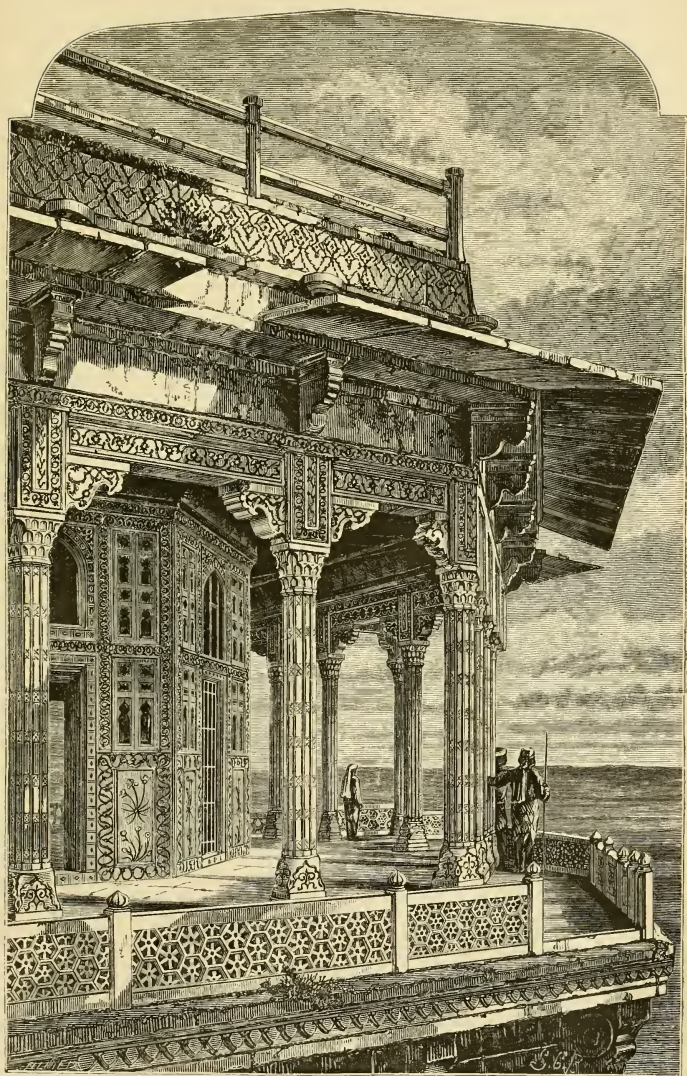
Hotel, with the express understanding that we shall vacate our rooms on the arrival of his royal highness the Prince of Wales, for the rooms had all been engaged ahead. Accordingly, we were very glad to agree to this proposition.

CHAPTER XXIV.

AGRA.

January 23d.—The city of Agra is beautifully situated on the banks of the Jumna, and was formerly a walled town, with sixteen gates; portions of the walls and the ruins of five gates are still to be seen. Its circumference within the walls is estimated to be about nine square miles. Agra was, until within the last few years, the seat of the Government of the Northwestern Provinces, which has since been transferred to Allahabad. The civil station and the English military cantonments occupy a large space of ground not far distant from the ancient town.

The fortress is an immense structure, of irregular form, a mile and a half in circumference, situated on the river-front, and contains the palace. Its massive walls on the side next to the river are sixty feet in height. From the top we obtained a magnificent view of the river, city, and country. The entire structure is surrounded by numerous turrets, and a moat, thirty feet wide, paved with stone. We entered by the north gateway, an imposing structure, flanked by two enormous towers, continued inward by a range of buildings showing a beautiful succession of alternate niches in the walls, and small arched openings covered with carvings and



EXTERIOR OF THE FORT.

mosaic-work. From this gate through which we ride into the inclosure, a paved-way ascent leads to the noble court-yard, five hundred feet by three hundred and seventy, surrounded by arcades. On the one side we entered the judgment-seat of Akbar, a splendid hall, one hundred and eighty feet long by sixty broad. It is an open portico, the roof resting on three rows of pillars, with circular ceilings. The alcove is in the centre of the hall, where Akbar sat to pronounce judgment. This alcove is a pavilion of white marble, beautifully carved in recesses, containing three sculptured marble chairs inlaid with mosaics. A door back of the throne leads to the private hall of audience. It consists of an oblong room of white marble most beautifully carved, and inlaid with precious stones; many of them, however, have been taken out, either by the multitude of visitors or the natives themselves. The adjoining room is an immense court, two hundred and thirty-five feet by seventy, formerly the sitting-room for the ladies. It is surrounded by a colonnade which they were decorating with evergreens, flowers, lanterns, and flags, in which to give a ball to the Prince of Wales on his arrival in the city.

This magnificent fortification and palace combined was built by the grandson of Akbar I. This emperor gave a festival on its completion, which, according to tradition, cost over a million dollars, and although he expended hundreds of millions upon his army, he had in his treasury when he died more than a hundred million dollars of coined money, gold and silver, be-

sides a large accumulation of valuable jewels and precious stones.

Near the judgment-hall, just described, stands the Pearl Mosque, a beautiful specimen of architecture of the finest white marble, the interior exquisitely carved and inlaid with precious stones, chaste and simple, but beautiful beyond description. It can be compared to no other edifice that I have ever seen; to the eye it is absolutely perfect. An inscription upon a marble slab represents this mosque to have been constructed by Shah Jehan in the year 1656. It occupies one side of a court one hundred feet square, paved with white-marble blocks, and surrounded by a beautiful marble cloister elegantly carved in panels.

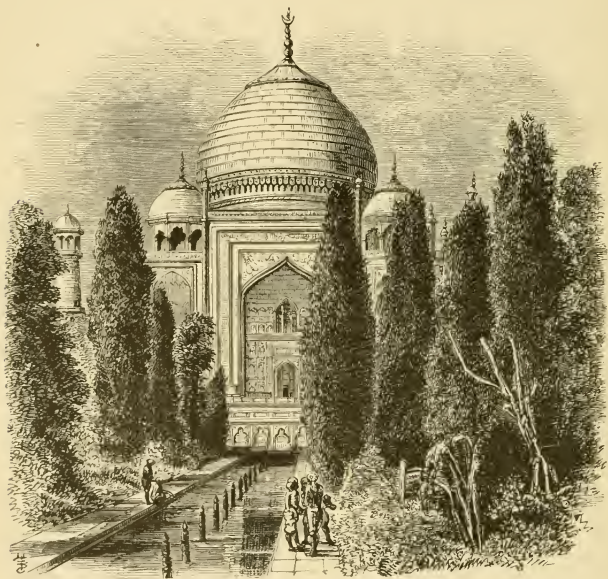
Among the wonders of the palace are curious underground passages, where the ladies are said to have played hide-and-seek to amuse the emperor. One of these is thought to communicate with the Taj Mahal, and also an old house in ruins in the cantonment. At the end of one of these passages is a deep well, said to have been used to put the unfaithful ones in who were sentenced to death. Two soldiers, some years ago, fell down this well, and were either killed by the fall or starved to death, as their bodies were not found until several days afterward; the authorities after this gave orders to have the passage bricked up.

From the fort we drive to the Taj Mahal, about a mile distant, over a good road. We enter first the outer court, an oblong inclosure about four hundred and fifty feet in depth, surrounded by arches, and having four

gateways. The principal gateway led us into the grand inclosure, which is beautifully laid out with stately trees, shrubs, flower-beds, and fish-ponds, and is kept in order by the Government. The Taj Mahal is raised on a platform of red sandstone, measuring nine hundred and sixty-four feet by three hundred and twenty-nine, fronting on the river. Two mosques occupied the court, one on the east and the other on the west end; like the towers, they are of red sandstone inlaid with white marble. The plan of the Taj is an irregular octagon one hundred and thirty feet in length and seventy in breadth, with an immense high ceiling and marble floors.

The Taj Mahal was erected by the Emperor Shah Jehan for his highly-esteemed queen, Mumtaz Mahal, as a tomb, in which they now both sleep side by side. She died before him, in giving birth to a child; it is stated that, as she felt her life ebbing away, she sent for the emperor, and told him she only had two requests to make: first, that he would not take another wife and have children to contend with hers; and the second, that he would build for her a handsome tomb, to perpetuate her memory. The emperor, who was devotedly attached to her, at once set about complying with her last request. The tomb was commenced immediately after the queen's death, in the year 1630, upon which twenty thousand workmen were employed for twenty-two years in its erection, at a cost of fifteen million dollars. The two tombs, which lie side by side, are of the purest white marble, exquisitely inlaid with blood-stone, agate, carnelian, jasper, and other precious

stones, and surrounded by a white-marble screen, elaborately cut in open-work, interwoven with vines and flowers of the most intricate ornamental designs and workmanship, the finest that I have ever seen in any part of the world, and is acknowledged by every trav-



THE TAJ MAHAL, FROM THE FOUNTAIN.

eler to be unrivaled, and the sight of this alone declared by many to be worth a journey around the world. An Englishman made the remark: "It is a sanctuary so pure and stainless, revealing so exalted a spirit of Mohammedan worship, that I feel humbled as a Christian

in thanking God that our own religion has never inspired its architects to surpass this noble temple of splendor and magnificence."

The two tombs, the monuments of display, are placed in the grand hall above the ground-floor, which is a lofty rotunda, lighted both from the dome above, and below by screens of open marble wrought in vines, and ornamented with a wainscoting of sculptured tablets representing clusters of white lilies. The dome of the Taj Mahal contains an echo more sweet and pure and prolonged than that in the Baptistery of Pisa, which is the finest in Europe, and doubtless this is the finest in the world. A single musical note, uttered by the voice, sounds very loud, and floats overhead in a long tone, fading away so slowly, that we imagine we still hear it when all is silence. The hall, notwithstanding the precious materials of which it is built, and its elaborate finish, assumes a grave and solemn effect. Some tourists, on first entering this solemn chamber, have been known to burst suddenly into tears, and it has the tendency to thrill almost every person with emotions of solemnity, if not to bring moisture to his eyes.

The Taj Mahal is surrounded by a beautiful park about a quarter of a mile square, fronting on the river, planted with choicest Oriental trees, shrubs, and flowers, with several fountains scattered through the park, throwing a profusion of jets into the air, which, as the sun shone upon them, represented a shower of diamonds. This park or garden is surrounded by a high wall, and entered by a magnificent gateway, covered by a

building from fifty to sixty feet in height, which is admired by all for its architectural grandeur, and beauty of the carving and mosaic ornamentation. We entered beneath this majestic arched gateway on going to the Taj Mahal. On the river-side of this garden rises a terrace of red sandstone twenty feet in height, and a thousand feet in length, the walls of hewn stone. At the extreme left of this terrace stands a magnificent mosque. It is the place of prayer for the faithful who come to visit the tomb.

Here upon the lofty terrace of sandstone rises an additional terrace of pure white marble of cut blocks laid in courses, forming a building three hundred feet square. At each of its four corners there stands a circular marble minaret about thirty feet in diameter, gradually diminishing in size to the height of one hundred and fifty feet, and crowned with an open cupola commanding a magnificent view of the surrounding country. In the centre of this marble terrace, or rather in the building, is a fountain in which the Mohammedans go to wash and purify themselves before entering the sacred tombs of the Taj Mahal, which is an ancient custom connected with their religion.

Shah Jehan commenced to build a new palace for himself on the opposite side of the river from the Taj Mahal, intending to connect the two edifices by a bridge spanning the stream, but the civil war shortly after broke out, which led to his fall, and cut short the undertaking.

To the northeast of the city, higher up the river, and

on the opposite side of it, is situated what is called the Garden of Rest, one of the oldest garden inclosures in Agra, and which was the garden palace of Nur Afshan, and is laid out somewhat in the same style as the Taj Mahal gardens, with stone and marble pavilions, which, it is said, are often occupied by picnic-parties coming from a distance.

It is related that Abkar founded this city by building a splendid residence and capital out of his private fortune, from what was then a complete waste: but he did not long occupy it, as the people came pouring in on account of its beautiful locality, and constructed many costly residences. The saint found his devotions interfered with by the bustle and crowding around him, but before leaving for more secluded quarters he named the city Agra.

January 24th.—This morning we were notified by the proprietor of the hotel that his royal highness the Prince of Wales was expected to arrive in the city some time during the afternoon, and that our rooms, which were taken on conditions, would be required; but, if we thought proper to remain over, he would furnish us rooms in an old bungalow, in one corner of the garden, which was covered with a thatched roof. As soon as I saw the place it reminded me of the snakes of India falling from the rafters, and I declined the invitation of our host to remove into it. But, fortunately, we saw the eighty elephants standing on the public square in readiness for the royal tourist, covered with scarlet blankets, trimmed with gold and silver lace, with gilded chairs upon their

backs, and their drivers dressed in rich uniform, and a profusion of flags displayed from the fortress, the house-tops, and all kinds of banners posted up along the streets and roadside.

We leave by the half-past ten o'clock train *en route* for Delhi. We ride fourteen miles to Tundla, and make a change of cars upon the East India Railway. Some hills which we cross are without irrigation—the soil looks as dead as if it never had any life; but, where the water has reached the land by the system of irrigation, the crops are in a flourishing condition. Deficient in industry as in energy, the natives sit on the ground when they use the sickle; they have no modern agricultural improvements or machinery. The country generally bears the same aspect as the plain of the Ganges. As we pass along through the jungles, occasionally we see large herds of deer, and great numbers of very large birds of different colors and species, comparatively tame. As the cars hummed along, they made but little effort to fly; some of them, as they stood upon their feet, stretching up their necks, appeared from three to four feet high. The birds of India, on the whole, are admitted to be of a class remarkable both for splendor of color and gracefulness of form. The reason of game being so tame is that the natives use no fire-arms, and, even if they did, to take life would be a direct violation of their religious teachings.

We arrived in the city of Delhi at six o'clock in the afternoon, and were conveyed to the United Service Hotel, which is decidedly the best hotel in the city. We

were furnished with two large rooms and a bath for ten rupees a day for us two. The house was kept by a Mohammedan, who was very polite, and made every effort to entertain us in the best possible manner.

CHAPTER XXV.

DELHI.

January 25th.—The city of Delhi was built by Shah Jehan, about the middle of the seventeenth century. Leaving Agra, which had been chiefly constructed by his grandfather, the renowned Akbar, during a revolution in the country, he fled to Delhi and laid the foundation of this gorgeous capital. It is inclosed by a wall of red granite, five and a half miles in circuit, and is entered by twelve strongly-fortified gates, the principal of which are named the Calcutta, Cashmere, and Lahore Gates.

Before the present city was built, Delhi at different periods occupied various sites within a circuit of twenty miles or more, most of which space is now covered with ruins. One monument, the loftiest single column in the world, yet remains in a good state of preservation about ten miles outside of the walled city, in the midst of magnificent ruins of which there is no satisfactory account given in the records of India. Old Delhi, as it is called, the last-forsaken site, is in a tolerably good state of preservation. The walls remain, and much of the ancient city is standing, but its public halls are deserted. Wherever the former kings built their fortified palaces, there the nobles clustered around, and the surrounding inhabitants also followed, both on account of trade, and

the better protection afforded against wandering and barbarous tribes of robbers.

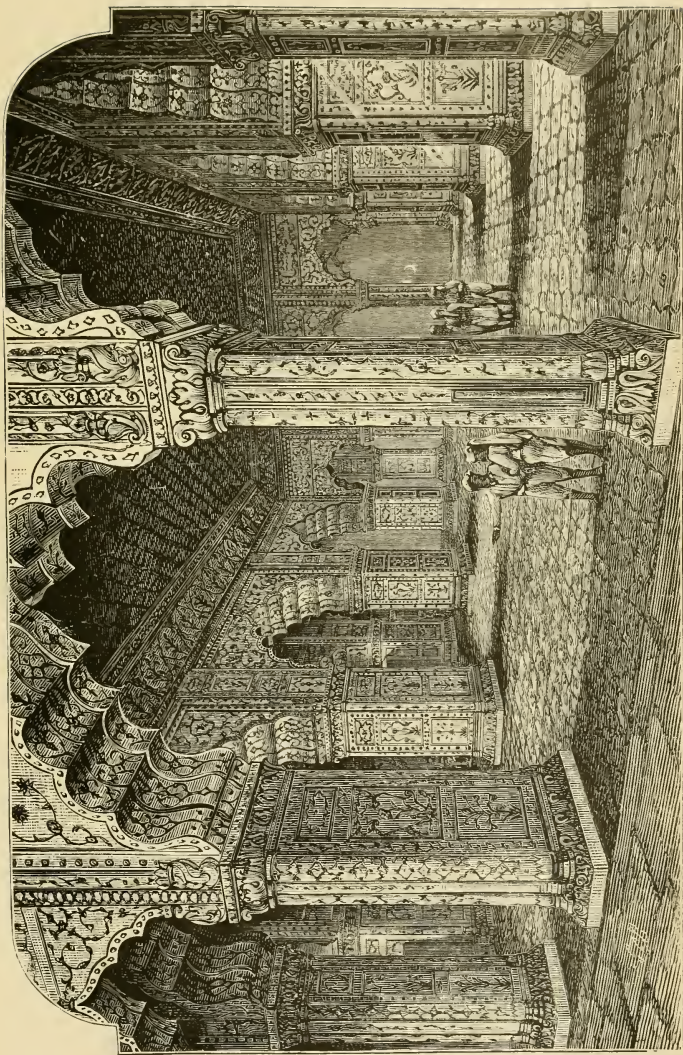
One principal street, called Chandi Chowk, one hundred and twenty feet wide, divides the ancient town from the modern. It is the principal boulevard of Delhi, crowded with people from early morning until night, and there is no street in India where there is more of an Asiatic display made. Hundreds of camels and elephants may be seen arriving and departing with heavy backloads of produce and merchandise. On either side of this boulevard are shops and warehouses of the wealthy merchants. The centre is a broad terrace or promenade, shaded with acacias and other ornamental trees. This promenade is thronged with people in all the varied costumes peculiar to different regions of Asia. Other parts of the city are equally curious in their way. The people, after sunset, assemble on the roofs of their dwellings to enjoy the cool of the evening.

January 26th.—This morning early we engaged an experienced guide, and, in company with a party of ladies and gentlemen, started off upon a picnic-excursion some eleven miles distant in the country, taking luncheon with us. We procured three large double teams, rode as far as Kootub, where we left the *gharries*, and took a relay of bullocks and rode in ox-carts to Toogluckabad, where luncheon was prepared for the party in what is called a dak bungalow. This style of bungalow is to be found on all the principal roads in India, about one day's journey distant from each other, for the accommodation of pilgrims. They contain no furniture, excepting

a pine table, a tin cup, a bucket, and a bedstead, and are always open to the weary and those who are desirous of stopping overnight. The bullock-cart in the interior of India is the principal conveyance. It is said that a good pair of bullocks will travel in a day as far as an ordinary span of horses. Our bullocks went on a fast trot, without stopping, the entire distance.

Toogluckabad was once a large city, but is now covered with a complete mass of ruins. The place derived its name from Toogluck, a former prince, who ruled over the people, and was the most furious tyrant that ever reigned. The ruins of the old fortification are most interesting. The fortress stood on a rocky eminence, covering a very large space, and was built of massive blocks of stone, so large and heavy that they must have been quarried on the ground. The thick walls are double, with a ditch between. The ramparts are raised, with rooms arched over, which doubtless formed the quarters of the troops that garrisoned the fort. The walls slope inward, similar to those in the Egyptian style of architecture, and are pierced with loop-holes, which serve to give light and air. This fort has thirteen gates, and there are three inner gates to the citadel, which contains seven tanks of water.

January 27th.—This forenoon we ride out to the palace and citadel, extending for a mile along the river-front. It is a mile and a half in circuit, and is inclosed on three sides by a wall of red stone forty feet high, flanked with turrets and cupolas. It is entered by two noble gateways. Entering by the Lahore Gate, we pass



INTERIOR OF THE IMPERIAL PALACE, DELHI.

under an arch, leading to the court-yard. In front of the entrance, at the distance of about one hundred paces, is the Music Hall. Beyond and facing this building is the Hall of Public Audience. In the wall is a staircase that leads up to the throne, raised about ten feet from the ground-floor; it is covered by a canopy supported on four pillars of white marble, the whole being curiously inlaid with mosaic-work; behind the throne is a doorway by which the emperor entered from his private apartments. The whole of the wall behind the throne is covered with mosaic paintings, in precious stones, of some of the most beautiful flowers, of vines, fruits, birds, and beasts.

We next enter the hall of *Dewan-i-Khas*, in which the emperor gave free audience to all who had any petition or cause to present. It is a square marble pavilion, with an elevated throne on one side, supported by pillars of stone, the wall beautifully inlaid with mosaic flowers. One side of this hall opens on the court; the second side faces on the palace-gardens; the third side commands a fine view of the river *Jumna*, which flows near the palace-grounds; while the fourth rests upon the walls of the *zenana*. On the side of the *zenana*, which is now closed, stood the famous "Peacock Throne," which, in the time of the Mogul dynasty, was the admiration, if not the envy, of the world. This throne was taken away in 1759 by *Nadir Shah*, the Persian conqueror, by whom the gold that came off the canopy was melted down, the value of which, together with the precious stones, was estimated at upward of ten

million rupees. The Peacock Throne is thus described by a writer who witnessed it:

“The throne was six feet long and four feet broad, composed of solid gold, inlaid with precious gems. It was surmounted by a gold canopy supported on twelve pillars of the same material, and around the canopy hung a fringe of pearls; on each side of the throne stood two umbrellas, symbols of royalty, covered with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold-thread, and clotted with pearls, with handles of solid gold, eight feet long, studded with diamonds. The back of the throne was a representation of the expanded tail of a peacock, the natural colors of which were imitated by sapphires, rubies, emeralds, diamonds, and other brilliant gems of great value, perhaps more so than in any other temple in the world, except Solomon’s in the holy city of Jerusalem.”

The Persian invader and tyrant, Nadir Shah, who not only stripped the palace of all its valuables, but sat on the throne just described, ordered the slaughter of nearly a hundred thousand of the helpless inhabitants of Delhi: men, women, and children, were put to the sword, filling the streets and avenues with their innocent blood. Walking over this marble floor, worn through in places by the millions of footsteps, once the scene of imperial magnificence, and in which so many cruel deeds were perpetrated, we were forcibly reminded of the history of the Jewish war, and the great Temple of Jerusalem, where there had been exhibited so many scenes of grandeur, glory, cruelty, and humiliation, culminating at

length in final destruction. It has been well said that, if there ever was a paradise on the face of the earth, it was the city of Delhi when she was in the height of her glory.

Leaving the throne-room, we pass on to an adjacent apartment containing the royal baths, surmounted by domes—rooms of the purest white marble, with inlaid borders, marble floors, and tanks, and a fountain in each room ; there is much simplicity in their arrangement, and yet they are chaste and beautiful to behold.

January 28th.—This morning, conducted by our experienced guide, who is conversant with the history of all that concerns this ancient city, we ride out to the Jumma Musjid, accounted one of the grandest mosques in the East. It is situated on a small, rocky eminence, overlooking the city. Its court is four hundred and fifty feet square, paved with red stone, and entered on three sides by handsome gateways, easily approached by flights of steps. In the centre of the square is a reservoir or fountain of water. The edifice is very imposing, and, with its lofty minarets, forms one of the most striking objects in Delhi. From its summit we had a view before us of the entire city and surroundings. This mosque is two hundred feet in length, and one hundred and twenty feet broad, surmounted by three superb domes and two minarets. It was constructed under the supervision of Shah Jehan, and was ten years in building. The interior is faced with plain white marble ; that part which indicates the direction of the shrine of Mecca is a handsome niche, adorned with a profusion of rich fancy-

work, and appears to have been cut out of a solid piece of white marble; at about equal distances apart, there are three projecting galleries.

Leaving the mosque, we rode through the Cashmere Gate, with its battered portals and crumbling parapets, and followed the road leading to the Flag-staff Tower. On the way we passed by the cemetery in which is the grave of Nicholson, who captured Delhi during the mutiny of 1857. Immediately above the cemetery is Ludlow Castle; some distance beyond, on the right, we passed by Sir T. Metcalf's handsome residence on the banks of the Jumna. To the left, crowning the height, we approached the Flag-staff Tower, into which, during the mutiny, the women and children flocked for protection. Returning, we passed through the site of the great battle-field. We also saw the observatory, now in ruins. Near this is a handsome monument erected to the memory of the victims who fell in the massacre. Between this monument and the observatory is one of Asoka's pillars, dating, from the inscription found engraved thereon, two hundred years before the Christian era. In the year 1766, by the explosion of a powder-magazine, it was thrown down and broken into five pieces. After the mutiny it was restored and set up by the British Government.

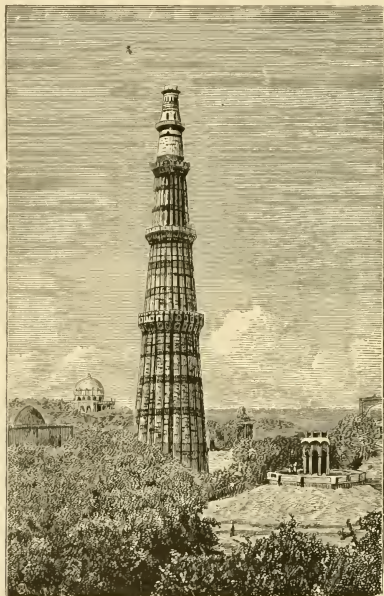
Not far from the city-walls we come to the shaft or monument of red stone known as the Lat. This stone is in one single piece, forty feet high and ten feet in thickness at its base, gradually tapering to the top. All around it lie the massive ruins of an old palace. This

shaft, or Lat, as it is called, bears an inscription of a very ancient character, which was entirely unintelligible to the most learned Brahmans, but more recently European skill has deciphered the writing, which proves to consist of certain edicts for the furtherance of religion and virtue, put forth by a king named Dhuma Asoka Piya-dasi, who reigned 322 B. C. This saint must have changed his character after he ascended the throne, since he ordered ninety of his relatives who had prior claims to be put to death. This shaft is, therefore, twenty-two hundred years old, and the inscription upon it is probably the oldest writing in India.

We now come to the old Pathan Fort, inclosed by walls sixty feet high; at each angle is a circular bastion, and in the middle of each side a gateway, defended by two towers pierced with loop-holes. Within the fort is a mosque, a building of excellent design and rich workmanship. The front is of red stone inlaid with marble and colored stone, and ornamented with projecting balconies supported by elegant brackets. It is crowned with three domes, the central one very lofty.

January 29th.—This morning early, accompanied by our guide, we rode out to the Kootub Minar, eleven miles from the hotel. It is reputed to be the loftiest column in the world. Kootub Minar is a fluted pillar two hundred and forty feet in height, and about eighty feet in circumference at the base, gradually diminishing to forty feet at the summit. It is divided into five stories by projecting balconies, which surround the tower and add much to its beauty. The lower story is ninety-

five feet in height from the base, the second fifty feet above the first, the third forty feet above the second, the fourth twenty-five feet above the third, and the fifth fifteen feet above the fourth. For what purpose it was erected no one can tell. This column is in a good state



THE QUTUB MINAR.

of preservation, and its summit is reached by three hundred and seventy-five steps. Looking up from its base, I thought it too high to ascend through a circular stairway ; but Mrs. Winants, having more of a passion for climbing, ventured up, and on descending said the view

from the summit of the column more than compensated her for the fatigue she endured.

Within a few hundred feet of the Kootub Minar are numerous carved fragments of the Musjid-i-Kootub-ul-Islam, which was erected as the grand mosque of old Delhi. It was constructed by its Mohammedan conqueror, at the close of the twelfth century, from the spoils of twenty-seven Hindoo temples. Some of the arches and pillars are beautifully sculptured. In the centre of the court stands the celebrated Iron Pillar, surrounded by clusters of columns of infinite variety and design, and of the most delicate workmanship. There are three entrances to the large court. The Iron Pillar alluded to is a solid shaft of mixed metal, sixteen inches in diameter; it stands twenty-two feet above the ground-surface, and as far below-ground. The history of the shaft is as follows: Rajah Pathora, fearing the fall of his dynasty, consulted the Brahmans as to what steps should be taken to insure its continuance. He was informed that, if he sunk an iron shaft into the ground, it would pierce the head of the snake-god Lishay, who supported the world, and his kingdom would endure forever. The pillar was accordingly constructed. How long the shaft remained undisturbed is not mentioned; but the rajah, either distrusting his priestly advisers, or desirous of seeing for himself whether the snake had been touched, had the pillar taken up, and, finding the end of it covered with blood, ordered the pillar to be again inserted in the ground. His Brahman friends now told him that the sceptre would soon pass away from the hands of the Hindoo

sovereign—that the charm was broken. Shortly after this, Shihab-ud-din took possession of the kingdom, and from that time no Hindoo king has reigned in the great city of Delhi.

Sekander Sani, consisting of a cluster of buildings, is the next place we visited. We entered a gateway with pointed horseshoe arches. The building within the court is surrounded by massive screens of marble lattice-work, and the whole structure surmounted by a dome. From here we were invited to visit the "Tank," about one hundred paces distant, partly inclosed by a wall eighty feet high, from the top of which some five or six nearly-naked natives leaped into the water one by one. After reaching *terra firma* each in turn held out his hand for money in reward for the performance, for which visitors are expected to pay, and it is a feat that every traveler should witness. They sprang with outstretched arms and legs, and kept in this position until within about twenty or thirty feet from the water, when they suddenly straightened themselves upright, plunged feet foremost into the tank, and soon reappeared swimming on the surface.

Delhi, with her noble fort and splendid palaces, her stupendous mosques, her battered walls and public halls, once the pride of India, is a grand desolation, covered with ruins, which it would require volumes to describe and months to explore.

It is conceded by many travelers that the wonderful ruins spread over Northern India are of greater interest to the tourist than any existing in the world, excepting

those of Palestine and Egypt, which are more intimately connected with the world's sacred history.

We called upon the Rev. Dr. Smith, who cordially received us, and gave much information concerning the missionary work in which he has been engaged at this post for the last twenty-five years. He not only preaches some three or four times a week to the natives, but has much to do with the municipal business of the city. The Queen's Gardens are also committed to his care, with their menageries and all that pertains to them.

When Dr. Smith entered Delhi, in 1850, he made his first convert in this place, and had to preach in a very small room. Now he has a flourishing church, with six hundred members, of which four hundred or more are communicants, and the mission is self-sustaining. He has also charge of a flourishing school, where several native young men have been fitted for the ministry, and sent out to preach the gospel truth to their countrymen. By this means, in a circuit of fifty miles or more, several additional churches have been established. Dr. Smith is accustomed to go over this circuit at least twice a year, visiting the churches and administering to their spiritual welfare. He said that the country churches were chiefly conducted by native preachers, who had much greater influence and made more converts than foreign missionaries, but they require more monetary means to carry on the work successfully ; as to laborers in the missionary field they have a good supply.

Dr. Smith's excellent wife, a lady of rare culture and refinement, and great energy of character, together with

some four or five other women, conducts the Zenana Mission, and has free access to over eighty Mohammedan girls, who are instructed in letters and needle-work. The ladies of this mission, who go out daily among the zenanas, are generally cordially received, and many of the wealthy natives express an earnest desire that their wives and daughters may be instructed. This institution is not altogether new; its specific form was adopted some fifteen years ago by the Woman's Union Missionary Society of America for Heathen Lands, which is spreading over most of the large cities of India, and whose headquarters are at Calcutta. It is a work of great importance to the women of India, who are so little esteemed by the male sex, as it brings them in closer connection with the influence of the Christian religion.

Since the mutiny of 1857, by which the city of Delhi was greatly damaged, the English Government has made many improvements. The Queen's Gardens, in the middle of the town, are laid out with much taste, beautified by fine roads and walks, and ornamented with flowers, shrubs, and shade-trees. A costly memorial church has been erected within the inclosure to commemorate those who fell in the terrible revolt, which burst upon the city with such terrific force.

The insurrection commenced at Meerut, about forty-five miles distant. After the massacre of the Europeans—men, women, and children—at that place, the Sepoys set out in a body for Delhi, where the native troops joined them, leaving the fortifications with only a few English officers, many of whom were slaughtered by the insur-

gents. The magazine, which contained an enormous supply of powder, guns, and other implements of war, was in charge of Lieutenant Willoughby. Seeing the state of affairs, he closed and barricaded the gates, and then, laying a train of gunpowder, prepared to blow up the arsenal should resistance prove unavailing. Only nine English officers kept thousands of Sepoys at bay, until at length, completely exhausted, and likely to be overpowered by the enemy, the match was applied, and more than a thousand mutineers were blown into the air. All the Europeans in the city who had not made their escape were massacred by the Sepoys. The English families were tied in rows, and then shot and sabred without mercy. Those who escaped suffered fearfully—tender women and helpless children wandering for days under the burning sun, lying down at night in the jungles in constant fear of the enemy. At this time the city of Delhi fell completely into the hands of the rebels; but it was not long after when it was recaptured by the English troops, an exploit conceded to have been one of the most brilliant and heroic achievements in the history of Indian warfare.

January 30th.—This being the Sabbath, we availed ourselves of the opportunity of attending divine service at Rev. Dr. Smith's church, a neat and comfortable edifice, beautifully situated in an open space about a mile out from the city-walls. The first service was in the native language. The church was entirely filled with natives, who were neatly clad in the costume of the country. The second sermon was in English, the con-

gregation consisting chiefly of British officers and soldiers.

January 31st.—We now, having reached the remotest point of our journey inland, and over a thousand miles from the sea, turn our faces homeward by the East India Railway 11.30 A. M. train for Bombay, distant twelve hundred and thirty-four miles; fare one hundred and eleven rupees each, with the privilege of stopping and remaining over at any place on the road. At a quarter-past twelve o'clock we arrived at Gareeabad, thirteen miles below Delhi, where there is a road branching off to the Himalaya Mountains, distant sixty miles by rail and thirty by bullock-carts, where we had a strong desire to go; but we were informed, by those who had just returned from the mountains, that the snow was deep and the weather cold, therefore we reluctantly declined making the trip. On our arrival in Southern India, we found the weather so extremely hot that we concluded to send our heavy trunks, containing all our thick clothing, by ship to Bombay, which we were to receive on our arrival at that place. Hence we were not prepared to encounter cold weather.

A few days can be profitably spent in the Himalayas, the loftiest peak of which, Mount Everest, is represented to be a little over twenty-nine thousand feet high, the greatest mountain altitude in the world; but they are not popular as a winter resort. During the hot season they are visited by the rajahs, princes, and English noblemen, who have fine summer residences scattered over the hill-country, devoting their time principally to hunting

wild game, with all kinds of which, such as wild elephants, leopards, tigers, wolves, wild-cats, etc., it is said the mountains are infested. But, during the winter, the entire region is nearly deserted, being visited only by tourists in search of novelty.

As we proceed down the road, on our way toward Bombay, we occasionally encounter large herds of deer, antelope, and numerous flocks of large birds, seemingly as tame as if they had never heard a gun. As night is coming on, our car is lit up, and we commence to unbundle our bedding, spreading it out in the best possible manner upon the lengthy seats for an all-night's ride. The days in India at this season are extremely hot, but the nights, especially just before dawn of day, we found were chilly.

February 1st.—This morning, at seven o'clock, we find ourselves in Allahabad, three hundred and ninety miles from Delhi, having been nineteen hours on the passage from the latter place. We are driven to the Northwestern Hotel, where we have good quarters for five rupees a day for each person. This hotel is pleasantly situated and well conducted.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ALLAHABAD.

THE city of Allahabad is situated on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of the Jumna and Ganges Rivers, and is considered by the Hindoos as one of the most sacred localities in India, being venerated by them as the place where three rivers join, only two of these streams being visible to mortal eyes; the third, they assert, flows direct from paradise!

Allahabad, a name given to the place by the Mohamadan conquerors, means the "City of God." When a pilgrim arrives here, the first thing he does is to repair to the river and sit down upon the bank; he then has his head and body closely shaved, so that each hair may fall into the water, the sacred writings promising him one million years' residence in paradise for every hair deposited in the water! After shaving, he bathes, to wash his sins away.

The fort, built by Akbar, rises directly from the banks of the two rivers, which situation rendered it in former days nearly impregnable. It covers a large ground-surface, and has been a very noble castle in its time, but has suffered greatly by cannon-balls and other missiles. It is still, however, a striking place, and its principal entrance is surmounted by a dome, with a

wide hall, surrounded by arcades and galleries. Within the inclosure is the hall occupied by Akbar. The Europeans took refuge in this old fort during the mutiny of 1857, many of whom fell victims to cholera brought on by privation and suffering.

Allahabad has acquired much importance within a few years by the removal of the capital from Agra to this place. Aside from the old city a new one has been laid out, with broad avenues and spacious squares; and large public buildings, including some of the finest barracks in India, have recently been finished. Many beautiful bungalows have also been erected, surrounded by extensive gardens, planted with ornamental shade-trees and flowers, giving the dwellings a cheerful and pretty appearance. In the mutiny of 1857 every foreign residence and every public building was destroyed, excepting the Masonic Hall, which the natives did not dare to attack, on account of the spirits that were supposed to guard it. The ancient city of Allahabad is of considerable extent, but is poorly built, the houses being low, and the streets narrow and winding.

Allahabad has long been known as a mission-field of the American Presbyterian Church. It is the chief place of pilgrimage, and, through the multitudes that gather here every year, an influence may be sent out to every part of India by those who come here to wash their sins away in the holy waters of the Ganges and Jumna, this being to the Hindoos the most sacred spot in the world.

The bridge over the Jumna is one of the attrac-

tions of Allahabad, the river being about a half-mile broad at this point. The bridge is one of the finest in the world, being entirely of wrought-iron, and thirty-two hundred and twenty-four feet long; there are fifteen openings in it, each two hundred and five feet in the clear. The construction of this bridge is considered a great triumph of engineering skill. The bed of the river is very treacherous, owing to the loose material and the rapid current at this point. The immense piers are sunk fifty feet below the level of low water, and the water at the time of a freshet in the river rises here from forty-five to fifty feet, so that these stupendous stone piers must necessarily be one hundred feet high merely to lift the bridge above high water. The railway is carried over on top of the iron girders, and the public carriage-road is underneath. The railway is carried on a viaduct for a long distance after leaving the bridge, the former being almost as fine a work as the bridge itself, constructed as it is on lofty arches. The East India Railway and the Grand Trunk road both have depots in this city. It has become an important railway centre, and is the very focus of the great railway system of Hindostan, which unites Bengal, Northern India, and Bombay.

The two great rivers that here unite are navigable for steamers for a long distance, and the Ganges from here to Calcutta has a fall of only five inches to the mile. This lordly stream, in its course from the mountains to the sea, receives as tributaries no less than twenty rivers, twelve of which are of greater volume than the Rhine.

The lower part of this great river is covered with ships, steamers, and vessels of every description, and by its agency an immense commerce is carried on with every section of the country.

Allahabad is admirably situated, and its population and trade have steadily increased and are still increasing. The population has doubled in a few years, and now numbers nearly two hundred thousand souls. The new Capitol is of stone, located in the centre of a large park, with grounds elegantly laid out, and adorned with the beautiful trees of this favored land; as yet, however, the trees are small and afford but little shade, but an abundant supply of water is provided for the ground, and in a few years will make the place beautiful.

The university buildings are also of stone, large and elegant, and with fine grounds adjoining, but in which the trees are as yet small. These public buildings are among the finest in India. The site of the city is level, and the streets are very smooth, being macadamized in the best possible manner. It is never winter here, and the leaves do not fall, but are ever green; the grass, however, withers, for there is no rain at this season of the year, and the land that is not irrigated is dry, parched up, and seemingly dead.

February 2d.—This morning early we hired a carriage, procured an experienced guide, and rode to the junction of the Ganges and Jumna Rivers, where we found the great Hindoo fair, which is only celebrated once in every ten years (although they have regular annual fairs not so large) in full display. It was the

largest concourse of people that I ever witnessed. Thousands and tens of thousands come from all parts of India to worship, and wash their sins away in these united waters. Flags of various orders were hoisted over stands on which Brahman priests were seated to receive fees and read their Shastas. Before reaching the sacred waters, for a mile along both sides of the wide avenue, all sorts of shops and tents were pitched, for the sale of idols and useful and useless articles. Within the encampment good order prevailed, and the people were seemingly devout in their manner of worship. The scene reminded me of a colored Methodist camp-meeting. In the tents the people were quietly seated upon the ground, the priests reading to them from books, and others preaching to the multitude. But the most loathsome sights that I have ever beheld were in some of the tents: devotees with their bodies covered with sackcloth and ashes, as an atonement for sin; others with heads shaven close to the skull, completely covered with ashes, upon their bended knees, with their faces fixed toward heaven as if in silent prayer; while others still were as naked as when born, with the exception of a small piece of muslin cloth girded around the loins, their bodies colored yellow, and striped with red paint. Every tent in which there was preaching had incense burning at the door.

As we passed through the dense crowds to the water-front, its banks were literally thronged with people, and thousands were bathing in the Ganges; while others, having their heads and bodies shaved preparatory to entering the sacred waters, crowded on

numerous boats. The encampment-grounds covered a space of not less than one hundred acres, and there were reputed to have been five hundred thousand people in and around this locality, who came from all quarters of the peninsula on this occasion. Many brought tents, provisions, and cooking-utensils, with them. Some from the remotest parts were from three to four weeks on the journey to this fair. In coming from Delhi we passed bullock-carts loaded with devotees, both men and women; others on foot, dragging their way along toward the holy river. It is said that many of the older people remain here to die, and have their bodies either burned or thrown into the Ganges; in the case of those who are too poor to pay the expense of the funeral-pile, their bodies are thrown into the sacred waters with little or no ceremony. After hearing of this custom of the Hindoos, our party ate no more fish while in the country.

The Hindoos also worship the sun, moon, stars, and fire. By one of our party an intelligent-looking native was asked why they worshiped such things. He replied that they believed in one God, who was the true light of both heaven and earth; that the sun, moon, stars, and fire, gave lights, and God dwelt in all those lights. In making further inquiry, the question was asked why they worshiped so many gods and goddesses. He answered that the true God was invisible; and the only way by which they had access to his presence was through their graven images or gods, who were merely representatives, standing between them and their God, and through them came answer to prayer.

The worship of idols God has denounced in the strongest possible language throughout both the Old and New Testaments, declaring that man shall not worship graven images (Jeremiah xxv. 6: "And go not after other gods to serve them, and to worship them, and provoke me not to anger with the works of your hands; and I will do you no hurt"). The missionaries may well ask for the sympathy and prayers of the righteous in their conflict with such abominable worship of idols! The Christian workers in these benighted and heathen lands have a double duty to perform, like the builders of the walls of Jerusalem under Nehemiah, when they had to work with the trowel in one hand, and stand ready to defend themselves with the sword in the other.

In a tour around the world, mission-work and missionaries naturally form topics of thought and conversation. I regard this subject as one possessing elements of special interest to travelers; and, if no friendly sympathy were felt to awaken inquiry and lead to investigation of facts, adverse representations would have that effect. On board the steamers of the Pacific, and in these Eastern seas, we are almost certain to meet with missionaries traveling to or from their respective fields of labor, and we are almost equally sure to encounter some of anti-missionary sentiments, who never seem to be more in their glory than when reviling the missionaries and speaking disparagingly of their work. We had representatives of both of these classes with us all the way from San Francisco to Japan, China, India, and

even met them in the British settlements, speaking and arguing against missionary work.

If it had not been for the missionaries of England and America, who at first introduced the principles of civilization into Asia, which has had so great an influence in opening the doors of her commerce to the Western world, we would not to-day have known so much of her history. Therefore tourists, in traveling around the globe, whether they are pious or otherwise, instead of speaking against the missionaries, without some tangible and sufficient cause, should commend their work for the good which it has already done, and which no intelligent observer can doubt.

England and the United States have sent out more missionaries, and done more to civilize and Christianize the heathen, than all other countries together. The little seeds of salvation, sown by the influence of these devoted laborers, have taken root, and are slowly but gradually spreading over the continent of Asia, and the islands of the sea. Ere long will come the rich harvest, according to the teaching of the Scriptures, when even from the least to the greatest all shall know the name of the Lord.

CHAPTER XXVII.

JUBBULPORE TO BOMBAY.

February 3d.—This morning we resumed our tour *en route* for Bombay by the 8 A. M. train. Nynce, a small village, is our first stopping-place after leaving Allahabad. From here we ran through a fine open country, well cultivated, till we came to Jurra, where we made another halt. Soon after leaving Nynce the cultivation decreases, and low jungle-bushes appear scattered over the valley. Farther along, the country, for some two or three miles, is covered with large black bowlders of granite, but in the distance are seen high ranges of mountain-scenery. We soon reach a bold headland, which appears to be the end of the chain, but as we move along it again appears in the distance, where richly-wooded slopes meet the eye. Farther on a long curve through a cutting brings us into a fine expanse of open country, bounded on the left by high hills, which soon after sweep round to the right. As the train rushes along, two large tigers are seen in the jungle not far from the track. We stop at Mujgowan for nearly half an hour. It is in a charming situation, embosomed in hills, and is the highest point in the Ghauts.

Soon after leaving this station, we are again in a fine

open country, with a few trees scattered here and there, and a high range of hills before us. We arrive at Sutna at 2.30 P. M., where we dine. About a mile from the town we cross a river of the same name. Now the view is all closed in by the high hills. As we emerge from these, we pass for nearly thirty miles through a beautiful level valley, bounded on either side, in the distance, by lofty hills of almost uniform height, sloping gently to the plain. Later in the afternoon we pass through very pretty jungle-scenery, diversified here and there by detached hills rising from a beautifully-wooded plain, and all along we occasionally see some large herds of deer and antelope, and flocks of birds.

Early in the evening we passed by a mountain on fire, which was most beautiful to look upon. At ten o'clock in the evening we arrive in Jubbulpore, where we break our journey, and put up in the Great Northern Hotel—board five rupees a day. This hotel is about half a mile from the station; it is somewhat fantastic in its construction, but very well kept.

February 4th.—The country in the vicinity of Jubbulpore is interesting on account of its diversified hills, which contain a variety of precious stones. Beautiful specimens of agate, porphyry, blood-stone, and many other rare and valuable gems, are found here, and can be purchased at reasonable prices.

Jubbulpore is a thriving place, with good roads and pleasant bungalows. The city contains eleven thousand houses within its boundaries. The streets are wide and clean, lined with shops and residences, built

to conform to the Oriental style, and present rather a pretty aspect.

This is the station to which the Thugs were consigned when the mutiny of 1857 was suppressed. They are organized into a sort of penal colony under British supervision. Some of the more desperate and dangerous characters are in irons, and they are all kept at hard labor. Even the children of the Thugs are confined here, and are not allowed to go out, lest the band should again spread over the country, and its fearful and unnatural crimes be repeated.

The prison covers a large space, with a court within, which is kept well guarded, the door and windows being secured by heavy iron-bound gates and shutters. We were shown by the superintendent through the institution. Some of the prisoners were hackling flax and carding wool, others spinning, and others again weaving the fabric into carpets and blankets, of a very neat pattern and color, for the English army. The whole of the work is performed with machines of native construction, and of the most ancient design. It was very interesting to see a row of small boys sitting on a seat behind the weavers threading needles. There are other branches of industry carried on in this institution, which was altogether well worth a visit.

We engaged an experienced guide, and rode out for several miles into the country. Coming to the foot of a group of hills, presenting a wild and most picturesque appearance, we left the carriage and climbed the highest peak, on which is a Hindoo temple of great antiquity,

constructed on the very edge of a bold precipice. We ascended a flight of stone steps till we came to the roof of the temple, whence we obtained a magnificent view of the surrounding country. The scenery throughout is full of beauty; the valley and adjacent hills, as we look down upon them, were covered with gigantic bowlders of granite, scattered in the wildest confusion, some deeply imbedded in the ground, others piled one upon another in such peculiar positions that it seemed as if they had been placed there by the hand of man instead of Nature; others were riven in twain by some mighty force—all more or less in a state of decomposition, the slow but sure decay of centuries, which, after a time, must end in the displacement of the ponderous masses. Riding through the woods, we saw two very fine monkeys playfully jumping from branch to branch, seemingly paying but little attention to passers-by. As we proceeded through the shady forest we met two Brahman priests, clothed in their usual yellow garments, both bareheaded and barefooted; but they would no more disturb or harm a monkey than we would some choice animal, for the reason that monkeys are among their chief idols of worship. We returned to the city by a different road from that by which we came. Just before reaching it we passed by some splendid country bungalows surrounded by spacious parks, or large gardens, lined with shade-trees, planted with shrubs, and adorned with beautiful flowers.

The Nerbudda River is not far from the city of Jubbulpore, and is a clear and rapid stream, with high and

precipitous banks. This being the dry season, the water is low. Here are deposited thousands of logs of the finest timber, cut in the mountain-forests, and waiting for the river to rise, when they are floated in rafts down to the sea.

All the ancient public edifices in India are built of stone. The elaborate workmanship on some of the stone-work shows that cutting and engraving had attained to a perfection several centuries ago that is now unknown to the natives of the country.

February 5th.—This morning we take our departure by the half-past nine train *en route* for Bombay. We have assigned to our company a reserved carriage. The extension of the East India Railroad between here and Bombay has only been opened to travel within some three or four years; since its completion, it has become one of the most important lines in India, as it links Calcutta with Bombay, and greatly reduces the time occupied by bullock-carts, which required several weeks; the entire distance can now be accomplished in less than two days. I purpose describing only a few of the principal places along the road.

At Chandni is an old fortification commanding the great pass from the west into Hindostan. It stands upon a precipitous rock, and possesses considerable natural strength. The face of the country is wild and diversified, and the railway must have cost an immense sum for grading through this mountain-pass. During the afternoon several monkeys were seen jumping from branch to branch in the wild forest-trees. The scenery

was so very interesting that, when nightfall came upon us, we regretted that the day had not been longer.

February 6th.—This morning, by the break of day, we enter the Ghauts. The scenery through all this region is most picturesque, wild, and charming. The road winds round the beautiful wooded mountains in every conceivable way, constantly opening to our delighted gaze views different from those seen by us in any other country. For a long distance we follow the winding course of the Godavery River, which has its source in this mountain-range, its troubled waters rolling over bowlders in the wildest confusion. As we are making the descent from the highest and western Ghaut, the road winds and curves round precipitous mountain-peaks, reminding one of the worm of a screw. While looking out on one side of the carriage one sees overhanging rocks reaching as it were above the clouds, and from the other are beheld far below in the abyss the furious torrent of waters rushing and leaping over the rocks, and making a noise like that of some great cataract. After leaving the Ghauts the country slopes gradually away into vast plains.

From Kussara the highest point is reached, where begins the incline toward the sea. The course of the railway is indescribably beautiful: the lofty cliffs, green slopes, wooded gorges, silver streams, cascades, forests of palms and teak-trees, and other Oriental trees in blossom, all combine to present a picture of grandeur and beauty. Before reaching the plains we passed through thirteen tunnels, the longest in all India.

Just before reaching Bombay we crossed over the island of Salsette, which is approached from the mainland by a handsome bridge. This island is diversified by hills, mountains, and fertile valleys, where we see various ruins, consisting of churches, convents, and villas. From here we passed through a succession of beautiful gardens and groves of mangoes, cocoa-nuts, and palms, of great beauty, till we come almost to the gates of the city. At 11.30 A. M. we arrived in Bombay, and were driven to the Byculla Hotel, where we had excellent entertainment at five rupees a day. This hotel is beautifully situated on the border of the town, having airy rooms, and two tiers of balconies, one above the other, stretching all around the house, well adapted to the hot climate.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

BOMBAY.

Februarg 7th.—The city of Bombay is beautifully situated on an island of the same name, which belongs to a group connected by a causeway. The land is mostly level, excepting the rising ground called Malabar Hill, a point to the west of the island. Bombay has a fine harbor for shipping, nearly land-locked, in which lie some of the largest and finest ships in the world. The island was taken by the Portuguese in the early part of the sixteenth century, and by them ceded in 1661 to Charles II. of England, as part of the dowry of his queen, Catharine of Braganza. King Charles, five years later, either gave or sold it to the East India Company; and in 1865 it was made the capital of the Western Presidency. On the opening of communication with England by the Red Sea route it received a new impetus, and railroad communication centring here from all parts of India, its population and commerce have rapidly increased. It is admirably located, both in regard to its internal and foreign trade, at the western entrance of India, has direct communication with the richest parts of the great peninsula, and is the nearest point of communication with the whole Western world. Bombay contains a population of six hundred and fifty thousand, and is the most

lively city in India. Nearly all the tribes of Hindostan are represented here, besides Chinese, Persians, Afghans, Arabs, Jews, Europeans, and many other nationalities. The costumes of the people are varied and gay, and the streets are perfectly thronged by a busy multitude both on foot and in carriages.

February 8th.—To-day I called upon the American consul, and examined the shipping in the harbor, which was an interesting sight to witness; numerous large ships lying off at anchor shipping and discharging cargoes, each ship, by its flag, representing its nationality. I also saw the flag of our country, the stars and stripes, waving to the breeze—that glorious standard which has greeted us in every clime, floats in peace over every ocean, and has its influence in every land and upon every sea.

February 9th.—We saw the procession of the Mohammedan annual religious fair, this being the tenth and last day. The procession marched through the streets, which were literally crowded with people. Some in the procession, as it was moving on, were playing on musical instruments, others were dancing, and others singing, all exhibited in a religious way.

February 10th.—We chartered a small steam-yacht, and invited some seven or eight English ladies and gentlemen who were stopping at the hotel to devote the afternoon to a visit to the beautiful little island Elephanta, about six miles across the bay. The caves of Elephanta are deserted Buddhist temples, immense caverns cut in the solid rock. The entrance to the first temple has three openings, and is supported by huge

pillars formed in the rock. This temple is one hundred and thirty-three feet in length, one hundred and thirty broad, with a ceiling twenty feet high, supported by ranges of massive pillars beautifully carved. Opposite the main entrance is a gigantic bust with three heads, supposed to represent the Hindoo Trinity. Here are two small temples, one on each side of the principal one, the true history of which is not known with any degree of certainty, but they are supposed to have been built in the sixth century. There are numerous other carved figures and shrines on the island, which is beautifully wooded, and one of the group that forms the harbor of Bombay.

February 11th.—This afternoon we rode out to Malabar Hill, overlooking the sea and city—the handsomest spot in Bombay. It is a kind of cemetery, selected by the Parsees, on account of its great elevation, for disposing of their dead. It is constantly guarded by men of a distinct caste, who are not permitted to mingle with the rest of the people. This cemetery contains a large building devoted to the preservation of the sacred fire, which has been burning from the remotest age, and is never allowed to expire. Here are buildings for the priests and those having charge of the dead; and also five round stone towers, called the Towers of Silence, each from forty to fifty feet high and about sixty in diameter, which are the receptacles of the dead.

When a death occurs, the body is taken to the gate of the cemetery, approached by a high flight of steps, and delivered into the hands of the priests. After a

prescribed ceremonial, the body is taken to one of the towers and laid on a grate upon the extreme top, where a flock of hideous vultures is always flying around waiting to devour the flesh, and the bones at length fall within the inclosure of the tower below in heaps. It is the most revolting mode of disposing of the remains of departed friends which I have seen in any country—quite as bad as, if not worse than, the Hindoo mode of cremation.

The scenery from this high hill is most magnificent to witness; the drive was through groves of cocoa-nut palms, and bungalows, surrounded by a profusion of Oriental trees and flowers, mostly occupied by Parsees, who form by far the most numerous class in Bombay.

The Parsees embody a great part of the wealth of the city, and are the most intelligent and enterprising of the natives of the country. A large part of the mercantile business is also in their hands. Their costume is of a peculiar cut, partly European and partly Oriental; they are readily recognized in every part of the East by their high-crowned leather hats. They have a sort of a caste similar to the Hindoos, and are forbidden to marry excepting among their own people. They seldom eat anything cooked by one of another religion. We had in company with us on the steamship from Hong-Kong to Canton three Parsee gentlemen, who had a separate table, and instead of eating fish, meat, and potatoes, with knife and fork, the food was first carved, and picked up by their fingers. They are as a rule well educated, but, with all their intelligence, they hold with

great tenacity to the ancient forms and superstitions of their ancestry, and there are no more bigoted religionists among all the tribes of Asia. They are the descendants of the disciples of Zoroaster, who lived in Persia several centuries before Christ, and it was by him that their form of religion was established. They are usually known as fire-worshippers reverencing fire, as well as the sun, moon, and other heavenly bodies. In their temples fire is kept continually burning by priests, who maintain that it has never been extinguished. They feed it with fragrant spices, and treat it as if it were a god. The priests cover the lower part of their faces with a mask when they approach the sacred fire, lest they should defile it with their breath.

February 12th.—We devoted the day to riding about the city. We visited the Town Hall, a massive structure, with apartments not only for the public service but scientific and historical purposes. The rooms of the Royal Asiatic Society, with its immense library and museum, are full of interest to every tourist. We also rode to the fortifications. The Elphinstone Circle, named from the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, who succeeded to the Bombay presidency in 1819, is surrounded by fine public buildings, and the centre of the most important commercial operations.

February 13th.—This being the Sabbath, we attended the Baptist Mission church. The congregation consisted of a goodly number of natives, neatly clad in the costume of the country. I then visited the Union Missionary Society works, which are in a prosperous condition.

Their printing-press was at work, striking off religious tracts and other publications, to be distributed over their field of labor.

February 14th.—This evening, by invitation through the landlord of our hotel, who is a Parsee in high standing, we attended a first-class wedding at the residence of a wealthy Parsee. The couple, however, had been



PARSEE CHILDREN.

married for eight days; but, according to their custom, the wedding festival was continued for nine days, of which this was the last. The building was brilliantly illuminated, both within and without, it will be safe to say with thousands of taper-lights. Both ladies and gentlemen were dressed in their peculiar costume, and constantly kept moving, coming and going. They treated

us to some sweet spices, which comprised all that was handed round to the company. It was more a display of dress and grandeur than a feast.

February 15th.—The annual horse-races took place to-day on the Byculla course, which was directly in the rear of our hotel, from the lofty veranda of which we saw the whole performance. The race-horses are not kept in such nice trim, nor do they run as swiftly, as those of America and England.

February 16th.—They have continual summer in Bombay, and its inhabitants have never seen frost nor snow. The climate, at this season of the year, is genial and pleasant. The thermometer stands on an average, at noon, in the shade, at about 70° ; at night it is much cooler, especially toward morning, when a blanket is comfortable.

February 17th.—We devote the time mostly to riding, in and out of the city, visiting the numerous shops, filled with all kinds of toys, cheap fancy-goods, etc., which reminds one of being in fairy-land. Among the curious places in Bombay is the hospital for aged and infirm animals. It is open to all species of animals, excepting the human. If a horse, camel, elephant, dog, or other member of the brute creation, becomes disabled, he is brought here and kindly treated at the expense of the institution.

February 18th.—England not only controls the people of India, but she holds an enviable position of influence over the great masses in many parts of Asia. The two small islands of Great Britain and Ireland claim to

hold and govern more than one-third of the territory of the globe. England's royal army of red-coats is seen everywhere. Her ostensible policy is that of neutrality, but, like her national symbol, the lion, she can be aggressive, and is ever able to grapple with and to conquer any feeble territory within her reach, in view of bringing it under her rule. Japan, China, India, America, and many of the large islands of the sea, feel the influence of England's controlling power.

Doubtless it has been a great blessing to the people of India in having been brought under British rule. It is with great pleasure that I bear testimony to the high character of the men who have the administration of affairs in the Indian Empire, as well as to the promising aspect of the country's future. I doubt if any country has more conscientious and intelligent public officers controlling its destinies, but, as in the case of other new administrations, there are yet important reforms to be consummated.

CHAPTER XXIX.

BOMBAY TO SUEZ.

February 19th.—This afternoon at four o'clock we embark on board the steamship *Erl-King*, Captain Hamilton, and take passage for Suez; distance three thousand miles, fare two hundred and fifty rupees apiece. The *Erl-King* is a fine iron ship, bark-rigged, of the capacity of three thousand tons, propelled by a stern-screw. Our passengers consist principally of East India officers—in the military and civil service—and their families, returning to England on furlough or leave of absence.

When we come to look back over the Orient, and the interesting scenes through which we have passed, it is with a feeling of deep regret that we determine upon hastening our departure, partly owing to the sudden breaking out of the small-pox in Bombay, by which scores, if not hundreds, were dying daily in the city, and partly on account of the necessity of evading the hot and enervating winds of the Red Sea, which commonly commence as early as the first of March, and continue up to the first of December.

India is not altogether a land of darkness, and yet the mass of its people are still bowing down to its gods of wood and of stone, or following the banner of the false Prophet; but the Sun of Righteousness is lighting

up the dark peaks here and there, and giving promise of the coming day when Christianity shall triumph over superstition and false religion.

At four o'clock in the afternoon the ship's anchor was raised. Captain Hamilton said that he intended to strike a bee-line across the Indian Ocean for Aden, on the southern coast of Arabia, which was the first land he expected to make. The passengers are all on deck, in good spirits, chatting about home, and taking a farewell view of India. The weather is charming, and not a ripple upon the surface of the bay.

February 20th.—Weather fine, and the ship under full sail running before the fresh northeast monsoon. Thermometer 75° . Course west by south; latitude $18^{\circ} 22'$ north, longitude $69^{\circ} 56'$ east. Distance run, from yesterday 4 P. M. up to 12 M., one hundred and sixty-four miles.

February 21st.—Weather fine, and the ship running before the monsoon, with all canvas set, which kept the vessel steady, helped us on our course, and supplied us with plenty of fresh air—a great blessing on these hot Eastern seas. Thermometer 76° . Course west by south; latitude $17^{\circ} 54'$ north, longitude $67^{\circ} 8'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 M., one hundred and seventy-four miles. The *Erl-King* is not as fast as some ships that we have been on, for the reason that she does not carry the mail, and is very heavily laden with merchandise. Captain Hamilton, this afternoon, ordered a tent constructed on the main deck for the accommodation of those who found it too hot to sleep below.

February 22d.—The weather is charming, the sea like glass, and not a ripple upon the water. The ship is under full sail, and running gracefully before the monsoon. Thermometer 76° . Course west by south; latitude $17^{\circ} 14'$ north, longitude $63^{\circ} 41'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-five miles.

As the passengers gradually became acquainted, the time passed pleasantly away. We find Captain Hamilton a gentlemanly, polite officer, not only looking well to his ship, but attending faithfully to the comfort and pleasure of his passengers, which cannot be said of all captains on the sea. Every morning and evening he inspected every part of the ship, from stem to stern, with the keenest eye, to see for himself that everything was in its proper place and every man at his post. The table was plainer than in some ships, but the food was substantial and well cooked, and the waiters obliging and ready at every call.

February 23d.—Weather very fine, and ship under all sail, running before the monsoon. Thermometer 76° . Course west by south; latitude $16^{\circ} 23'$ north, longitude $61^{\circ} 2'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-six miles.

February 24th.—Weather fine, sea smooth, and the ship, having all sail set, running as usual before the monsoon. Thermometer 80° . Course west by south; latitude $15^{\circ} 41'$ north, longitude $57^{\circ} 53'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and eighty-three miles.

February 25th.—Weather fine, sea smooth, and ship running before the gentle monsoon. Thermometer 81° .

Course west by south ; latitude $15^{\circ} 11'$ north, longitude $55^{\circ} 5'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-three miles.

February 26th.—Weather fine, sea smooth, and ship under full sail. Thermometer 81° . Course west by south ; latitude $14^{\circ} 21'$ north, longitude $52^{\circ} 42'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-four miles.

This evening the water is as smooth as a mirror, and so deeply impregnated with phosphorescent jets of light that we could almost see to pick a pin from the ship's deck, or, in other words, completely illuminating surrounding objects. During yesterday and to-day the ocean was strewn with locusts, which are supposed to have been blown from off the Arabian coast. To-day we are abreast of the mouth of the great Euphrates River, which has its outlet in the Indian Ocean.

February 27th.—Weather charming, and ship under full sail. Thermometer 80° . Course west by south ; latitude $13^{\circ} 42'$ north, longitude $49^{\circ} 1'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and eighty-three miles. This kind of weather, in the latitude of the Indian Ocean, commonly continues for six months of the year. The monsoons are similar to the trade-winds upon the American Pacific coast, and render it quite as pleasant to be on sea as upon the land.

February 28th.—This morning early we saw many flying-fish skipping over the unruffled sea. The weather still continues fine, and the ship under full sail. Thermometer 81° . Course west by south ; latitude $12^{\circ} 55'$ north, longitude $46^{\circ} 15'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m.,

one hundred and seventy-one miles. Later in the afternoon we are off Aden, sixteen hundred and fifty miles from Bombay. There is nothing very striking in the appearance of the town. It is a mass of rock connected with the mainland by a low, sandy neck, the rock towering up to the height of seventeen hundred and seventy-



ADEN.

six feet. It was held by the Portuguese during the height of their power in the East. The Turks captured it in 1538, and held it for three centuries. In 1839, for an outrage committed upon a vessel sailing under English colors, the British Government seized the place, strengthened its fortifications, and have kept a large gar-

rison upon it ever since. On account of its strength it is called the "Gibraltar of the East," for its commanding position near the Red Sea. It seldom rains at Aden, sometimes three or four years elapsing without a drop falling from the clouds; even when it rains on the mainland near by, it passes over Aden. To supply the town with water, the authorities have excavated immense tanks in the solid rock to collect the rainfall when it does occur, and where the precious fluid is preserved for years. Aden is now principally used as a coaling-station. All ships passing through the Red Sea to and from India stop at Aden to take in coal, which is brought from England in sailing-ships by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and deposited here for the use of her steamships.

February 29th.—We have now entered the Red Sea, ninety miles from Aden. This forenoon we pass, looming up from the sea, the twelve small islands called the Twelve Apostles; shortly after we go through the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, or what are called by old sailors the Gate of Tears. We are now having the shores of Arabia on one side and Africa on the other, both of which can be seen with the naked eye. To-day the weather is very fine, and the water perfectly smooth. Our ship is still running before the monsoon, under sail. Thermometer 76°. Course north by west; latitude 12° 40' north, longitude 43° 24' east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-two miles.

This afternoon we passed by the city of Mocha, on the Arabian side. This region forms the great coffee-

growing district, whose fine product is shipped to many parts of the world. The Arabs also trade in frankincense, myrrh, amber, and ostrich-feathers; they likewise supply the passing ships with fruit, mostly dates, and with mutton of the Berber sheep. This small animal is invariably white, with a black head.

March 1st.—Weather very fine. Last night the ship ran out of the gentle northeast monsoon, which has accompanied us all the way from India. This forenoon we pass by the Jebel Teir Island, located nearly in the centre of the sea, about midway from either shore. The Red Sea occupies but a small space upon the map, and yet it is over thirteen hundred miles in length, and its greatest width is one hundred and ninety miles. To-day the ship's course is west-northwest; wind southeast, all sail set. Latitude $15^{\circ} 17'$ north, longitude $40^{\circ} 41'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and eighty-seven miles.

March 2d.—The Red Sea is by old sailors conceded to be one of the most dangerous in the world to navigate. The water is of great depth, but rocks and islands are scattered through it, and coral-reefs abound, which seldom lift their heads above the waves to warn the sailor of his danger. Ships are often lost in thick weather by the unexpected changes of currents. The countries on both sides of the sea are inhabited by wild and barbarous people. There is now a fearful war raging in Abyssinia, on the African coast, between the Egyptians and Abyssinians. To-day the weather is clear. Thermometer 80° . Course west-northwest; latitude $17^{\circ} 42'$

north, longitude $39^{\circ} 52'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and seventy-five miles.

March 3d.—Weather clear, wind blowing a gale from northwest. Thermometer 76° . Course west-northwest; latitude $19^{\circ} 27'$ north, longitude $39^{\circ} 2'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and fifteen miles. The gale became so terrific that Captain Hamilton ordered the sailors aloft to send the light spars and topsail-yards upon deck, in order to relieve the laboring ship. We were not, however, without warning of this gale, for the captain said, some two or three days ago, when the weather was fine, that we should encounter a succession of gales, and that we had better prepare for the event. It is a most singular phenomenon, that these gales on the Red Sea should be so regular in their course. It commonly blows at this place a gale from two distinctly opposite points, both up and down the sea, at the same time, during the greater part of the year, leaving an intermediate space of nearly a dead calm for one hundred miles between the two currents of wind. Sailing-ships are scarcely ever seen on this sea, native crafts excepted, and these are often utterly lost, or wrecked.

March 4th.—The gale continued all through last night, and to-day we occasionally ship a heavy sea, washing the decks from stem to stern; but the weather overhead is perfectly clear, and scarcely a cloud to be seen. Thermometer 76° . Course west-northwest; latitude $21^{\circ} 34'$ north, longitude $37^{\circ} 46'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and thirty-six miles.

March 5th.—Last night we left the gale astern; to-

day the weather is delightful, with little or no wind. The passengers are all in high glee and full of life, as is always the case at sea after having a gale of wind. Thermometer 76° . Ship's course west-northwest; latitude $21^{\circ} 34'$ north, longitude $37^{\circ} 46'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and sixty-six miles.

March 6th.—To-day we approach the opposite wind, but it is fair, and not as terrific as the last gale, which was ahead; the weather, nevertheless, is very fine. Thermometer 75° . Course west-northwest; latitude $26^{\circ} 19'$ north, longitude $34^{\circ} 56'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and fifty-five miles. Captain Hamilton runs the ship at a slow rate, lest the coal may fall short before reaching Suez. Last night a large ball of fire was seen by the officers and sailors of the ship to fall from the heavens into the sea, which incident furnished a topic of conversation for the passengers during the day.

March 7th.—Weather fine, sea smooth. Thermometer 75° . Course west-northwest; latitude $28^{\circ} 3'$ north, longitude $33^{\circ} 5'$ east. Distance run, up to 12 m., one hundred and sixty-four miles. We have now eighty-five miles to make to reach Suez. At mid-day we are abreast of Mount Sinai, which peak can be seen through a good glass. It was at the base of this mount that the Israelites pitched their tents when on their journey into the promised land, and where Moses went up into the mount and procured the tables of stone, with the Ten Commandments written thereon, for the government of the children of Israel, by Him who rules the universe.

March 8th.—This morning we pass over the track,

upon the Red Sea where the Israelites are supposed to have crossed. There is no doubt in regard to the route by which they came from Succoth to the sea. It is clearly defined by the general features of the country—a precipitous mountain-range forming a deep ravine, stretching from the sea in a westerly direction, from which they could not diverge. Pharaoh and his host were in their rear, and they had fled until they could go no farther—a mountain-wall was on one side, and the deep sea on the other. At the point to which I refer the Red Sea must be from five to six miles in width, and of great depth, for our ship, drawing twenty-two feet of water, passed over the supposed track. The Egyptians pursuing the Israelites went after them into the midst of the sea, even all Pharaoh's horses, his chariots and his horsemen. It was in the midst of the very waves that they proposed to turn back, when they found that the Lord was fighting for the Israelites and against themselves. They accordingly turned and fled; but when the sea fell from its walls and returned to its bed, of the vast army that had gone into it there remained not so much as one of them.

Doubtless, the drying up of the waters of the Red Sea was not effected alone by the strong east wind, for the children of Israel went into the bed of the sea upon dry ground, and the waters were a wall unto them on their right and on their left. The Holy Scriptures show that it was a sublime miracle. If the Israelites had taken a more northerly route, they could have passed around the head of the Red Sea over dry ground, and it

would not have taken them more than a day's march to have brought them opposite to the point where they did cross. And they could have also traveled over the sandy desert into Palestine or the promised land in forty days instead of forty years, but this short route was not consistent with the divine will; neither would their enemies, the Egyptians, in that case, have been destroyed by the angry and rushing waters of the Red Sea if the Israelites had taken their own way. They had no choice as to the course which they should take, for they were guided and ruled over by a higher power—by Him who led them on by a pillar of cloud by day, and a pillar of fire by night.

About nine o'clock this morning our ship drops her anchor near the mouth of the Suez Canal, through which she is to pass *en route* for England, and by her I sent one of my heavy trunks, to be left in Liverpool, thus saving both the expense and trouble of carriage across the Continent.

Previous to leaving the ship, the passengers joined in presenting Captain Hamilton a letter, expressing their sympathy and kindly regard for the marked attention and gentlemanly treatment received at his hands during the pleasant voyage of sixteen days from India to Egypt.

We are landed by the natives upon the custom-house dock, where we supposed that our trunks would be turned inside out by the authorities; but, instead of an examination, the officer in charge requested backshish. One of the party gave a rupee, and we passed through

and put up at the Suez Hotel; price for board eighty piasters per day, which is equal to four dollars of our currency. The piaster is the Egyptian standard of money; one piaster is equal in value to five cents American coin.

CHAPTER XXX.

EGYPT.

SUEZ, like Aden, presents nothing very striking to the tourist. The city is situated on a low, sandy plain, and for some cause or other they scarcely ever have any rainfall. A stream of fresh water has been brought through the desert from the Nile, which supplies the most pressing wants of the town, which is said to contain thirty thousand inhabitants. The houses are purely Oriental, and not very inviting; they are one story high, and built of clay. The town is surrounded on all sides by the sandy desert, and whatever is consumed in the place is brought from abroad. The Suez Canal Company has made a safe harbor here with convenient wharves, used chiefly by ships coming and going through the canal, and by the railroad company.

The Suez Canal is one of the chief improvements in the East, opening up a great highway of commerce between Europe and Asia, and bringing the two continents into closer connection with each other. The canal is eighty-seven miles in length, built over the desert, consisting of a level, sandy plain through a chain of small lagoons, having its terminus at Port Saïd, upon the Mediterranean, at one end, and Suez, on the Red Sea, at the other. The canal has an average width of seventy-

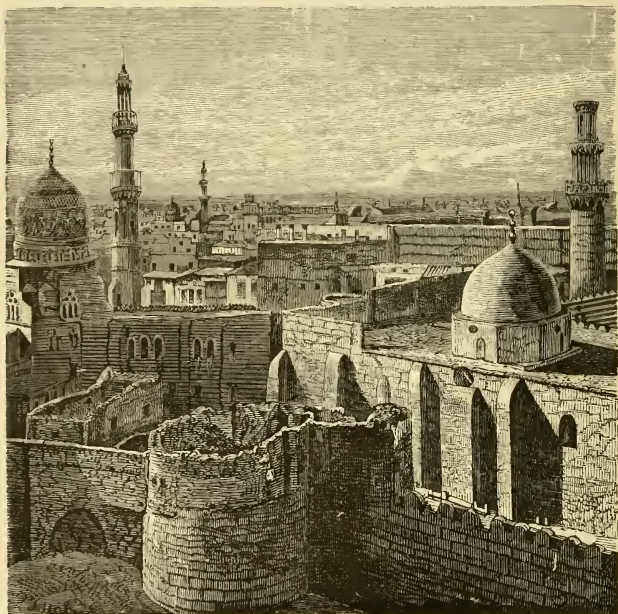
two feet at the bottom, and two hundred feet at the surface, with a depth of twenty-six feet; the water in the two seas is on the same level, and the canal has no locks. Steamships pay two dollars per ton, according to their registers, for the privilege of passing through. There are few if any sailing-ships which make the passage, for the reason that the tariff is higher than they can afford to pay, and the navigation of the Red Sea is dangerous for sailing-vessels; hence sailing-ships bound to the Indies go around by the way of the Cape of Good Hope.

The Suez Canal was not altogether a new idea on the part of its modern projectors. The ancient Egyptians, it is believed, had some sort of communication by water across the isthmus. In 1798, Napoleon I., then commanding the French expedition to Egypt, proposed opening a ship-canal through the same route. A commission appointed to make the survey reported that the Red Sea was thirty feet lower than the Mediterranean. This was considered a fatal objection, and the enterprise was abandoned. But, when the survey was made in 1830 for the opening of the canal, they found the two seas on the same level.

March 9th.—This morning we leave by the Egyptian 8 A. M. train *en route* for Cairo; distance one hundred and eighty miles; fare for each person three hundred and fifty piasters. We ride along the margin of the Suez Canal some forty miles, till we come to Ismaïlia, which town sprung suddenly into existence by the touch of the canal. After the completion of the canal the

khédive appointed a day for a celebration of the great enterprise. He invited Napoleon, the imperial patron of the work, and the empress, and all the kings and queens and princes of the world, to come to Ismaïlia, where was given a grand entertainment. Since then Ismaïlia has become of considerable note, and is building up rapidly. After leaving Ismaïlia we struck out into the desert, and for several hours traversed the sandy waste, forming a picture of desolation. Now and then we came upon some weary travelers, who with camels or donkeys were dragging their way through the lonely desert upon some foreign pilgrimage. Early in the afternoon we approached the valley of the Nile, on the same route which Abraham took when he went into Egypt to escape the threatened famine, and by which the sons of Jacob went down to buy corn. It is also the section of country in which the Israelites dwelt four hundred and thirty years. This plain is rich in fertility, and dotted with small towns and cities. The foundations upon which these towns are built are raised, by artificial earth, several feet above the level of the country, for protection against the rise and inundation of the river Nile, which commonly occurs in the autumn of every year. These towns are chiefly inhabited by farmers and shepherds. They still hold to the traditions spoken of in the Bible; they have no barns in which to store their crops, but do their thrashing in the field. We caught sight of the great Pyramids, at least forty miles distant, with all their gigantic majesty looming up to the clouds. They may well be ranked among the great wonders of

the world. For a while we almost forgot that we were travelers from the New World, and fell to meditating upon the land in which we found ourselves—upon the Pharaohs and the patriarchs—until warned by the



CAIRO.

steam-whistle that we had arrived in the ancient city of Cairo, where we were immediately besieged by a host of hotel-runners, dragomen, crowds of donkeys and donkey-boys, porters, and beggars, reminding us of the Egyptian plagues. But the beggars are not now as

prevalent as when I was here eight years ago ; then they were like the frogs of the ancient plague which ascended into the very bedchambers. Finally, among the dense crowd, we at length succeeded in getting a carriage, and rode to Shepheard's Hotel, where we arrived just before sunset ; board sixty piasters a day. This hotel is the best-kept house in Cairo.

The population of Egypt is reputed to be eight millions, composed chiefly of two classes. The most influential class consists of immigrants, or sojourners, from Europe. They lead in commerce, banking, and manufactures, and retain, by virtue of treaties between the sultan and Christian European countries, their respective nationalities and allegiance. They are not only exempt from the judicial authority of the Egyptian Government, but also from taxation. Thus they constitute a governing class independent of the government itself. The native class is of a mixed race. A small portion are Copts, descendants of the ancient Egyptians. Those living near, and on the Mediterranean coast, are chiefly of Arabian extraction and are mostly Mohammedans. Besides these, there are Nubians, Abyssinians, and many other African races.

Over all these native races the khédive exercises absolute power. He taxes at his will, and confiscates at his pleasure. The majority of his subjects are sincere and bigoted in their religious faith. The khédive's administration is a personal one ; every transaction of the government is conducted with his personal knowledge and by his direction, and without his sanction nothing

can be done. It is due to the khédive to say that his administration is successful, and even popular. He has done much for the improvement of Cairo, by pulling down old buildings, and erecting more substantial and modern ones in their stead; widening and straightening the streets, etc. He has already extended the Alexandria & Cairo Railroad several hundred miles toward Upper Egypt, and intends to carry it to the Soudan, the extreme southern province of his dominions. He is individually the largest land-proprietor and agriculturist in Egypt. I am informed that he owns one-fifth of the tillable land of the country, and is reputed to be immensely wealthy. What is more marvelous is, that he superintends his personal estate, as well as his public affairs.

Khédive is, in modern Egypt, the title for which the Europeans use the word *viceroy*. The present khédive is a son of the eminent Ibrahim Pasha, and grandson of Mehemet Ali. He succeeded his uncle, Saïd Pasha, in 1863, and is now about sixty years old. By a treaty which he made some few years ago with the sultan, the succession is confirmed in his family in a direct line. He was educated in France, speaks both English and French fluently, and his appearance is decidedly European. He has several large and most magnificent palaces, and lives in great splendor. Every day we saw him, accompanied by some of the members of his family, riding past our hotel.

March 10th.—The history of Egypt extends back to a period three or four thousand years before the birth of

Christ, and many of its monuments are the oldest human handiwork existing in the world. It was a powerful and wealthy kingdom in the days of Joseph. Moses was educated in its schools, in order to fit him for the guidance of the Jewish people into the promised land. Egypt is conceded to have been the cradle of the world's civilization; Greece derived its arts and its sciences from Egypt. She also taught imperial Rome; and from Rome the waves of knowledge spread all over Western Europe. But Egypt, like Greece and Rome, to-day does not enjoy that high degree of civilization which she did centuries ago. She has also lost that polished literature, and the arts and sciences practised by her forefathers, and her people have become a benighted race.

March 11th.—To-day we ride out to the citadel, not so much to see the structure itself, or the grand mosque, as for the panoramic view of the city and the valley of the Nile, which it commands. This magnificent sight alone would pay a traveler for coming to this far-off country, even if he should see nothing else. As we stand upon this bold parapet, the whole of Cairo, both ancient and modern, lies at our feet. On the borders of the city flows the Nile, winding its way through the lovely valley until lost in the distance, and containing the little island of Rhoda, upon whose borders Moses was found in the bulrushes by the king's daughter. The Pyramids and the Sphinx, which are but a few miles off, sit now, as they did forty or fifty centuries ago, in silent majesty.

Although the citadel has been rendered unreliable as a fortress, it very justly excites admiration. Like those

in India which we saw, it is a combination of fortifications, palaces, and mosques. It stands on a bluff three hundred feet above the Nile. A well, which supplies water to the citadel, is an object of much curiosity and interest. It was excavated by Saladin, and is commonly known as Joseph's Well. It is two hundred and seventy feet deep, and consists of two stories or chambers; the water is raised from the bottom, one hundred and twenty feet, into the first chamber, worked by men stationed at the bottom, thence it is brought to the top of the well by another mechanical process. A winding staircase leads from top to bottom.

In the citadel is the court in which the Mamelukes were treacherously massacred, by order of Mehemet Ali, in 1811. Here stands one of the khédive's numerous palaces, occupied by one of the princes. But the most imposing modern structure in the citadel is the mosque of Mehemet Ali. This mosque, by reason of its advantageous site, its grand dimensions, and its lofty dome and minarets, is the most conspicuous and admired object in Cairo. It is constructed, both within and without, including walls, columns, and dome, of white alabaster. The tomb in which the remains of Mehemet Ali rest is very beautiful; the sarcophagus is of alabaster, covered with rich tapestry.

The Jews, in the time of the Pharaohs, found Egypt a storehouse of corn; the Greeks and Romans, at a later period, found it a storehouse of monuments and relics, and eagerly carried them away. The spoils of Egypt are seen in Rome, Naples, Paris, Berlin, Constantinople, Amster-

dam, and even in London. But to-day we find Egypt in a state of transition, gradually emerging from a condition of darkness into a more enlightened civilization.

March 12th.—To-day we attend the Presbyterian Mission church; preaching in Arabic by Dr. Lansing. The doctor informed us that the mission-work in Cairo was greatly on the increase. There are now three thousand nominal Christians, and six hundred communicants, in all Egypt. During the last five years, the number has more than doubled.

March 13th.—The camel and donkey do the work of vehicles in all parts of Egypt, carrying merchandise and products—even sacks of brick, stone, earth, and timber—upon their backs. When the camel is to receive his load, he is instructed to fall upon his knees, and, when loaded, to rise, go to his place of destination, and again kneel until his load is discharged. When a camel is loaded, he will cry, signifying that he has as much burden as he can carry. The donkey is also a very useful animal, and can carry as large loads on his back as one of our ordinary horses; yet, he is not one-quarter the size of a horse. But, since Cairo and Alexandria have become more modernized, business-men have brought into use English horses and carts, with which they can do more than double the work formerly accomplished. The streets are filled with saddled donkeys going hither and thither, led by donkey-boys, soliciting strangers to ride. Here, as in India, caravans are numerous. More than a hundred camels may sometimes be seen on the desert, either loaded with pilgrims—consisting of men,

women, and children—or merchandise. It is said that it is not uncommon for one train to bring in enough cotton, sugar, tobacco, or corn, to load an ordinary sailing-ship, and they are often from four to six weeks on their journey. It is a most interesting sight to see a caravan in the distance, especially crossing the desert; they resemble a line of merchant-ships more than anything else.

The pyramids may well be classed with the great wonders of the world. Underneath these monuments lies the dust of Egypt's early kings. They are immense structures, that of Cheops measuring seven hundred and sixty-four feet at its base, and gradually tapering up to the height of four hundred and eighty feet. They have doubtless cost more to build than the ancient city of Cairo, which contains over four hundred thousand inhabitants. Two of the largest of them stand about one-eighth of a mile apart. The stone of which they are built is supposed to have been brought from Thebes, some six hundred miles up the Nile. Some of the larger blocks are twenty feet long, and from five to six feet thick. I saw an estimate, made by a scientific gentleman, which shows that there is stone enough in these two pyramids to build a wall, four feet high and eight inches thick, reaching from New York to San Francisco! The natives are at a loss to know how these immense blocks of stone were transported from such a great distance without the use of machinery and wheel-carriages, and say that the modern inhabitants are incompetent, and have not the knowledge necessary, to enable them to erect such stupendous structures at the present day

These two pyramids are situated about five miles from the city of Cairo, on the very edge of the Great Sahara Desert, which is covered with sand-hills. When the wind blows hard it is impossible to see, on account of the dense clouds of sand, which shift and roll up like the



THE SPHINX.

waves of the ocean. It requires several weeks of hard labor for a caravan of camels to cross over this vast desert, and during a heavy gale of wind they are compelled to pitch their tents and remain until it abates. I am informed that, after a gale, they have often to

excavate their way out from the sand-banks that have formed over their tents during its continuance.

The Sphinx is situated within a few hundred feet of the pyramids, and is a colossal figure hewed out of the solid rock, excepting the fore-paws, which have been attached ; it is an enormous monster with gigantic arms, between which was formerly held a miniature temple, with a flight of steps to approach it. In former times its head bore either the royal helmet, or the ram's-horns. It is sixty-three feet high, its human-shaped head twelve feet long, the nose four feet long, and the mouth two feet wide. It is conceded by many to be the most wonderful of the Egyptian monuments, and the more I looked at it, the more striking it appeared. Most people never weary in gazing upon its human form. When and for what purpose this vast image was constructed, no one can give a satisfactory account.

The Mohammedans are very devout in their mode of worship. They have no altars in their mosques ; they worship no graven images, nor pictures of any kind. Before entering their places of worship, it is the custom to wash their hands and feet ; others strip off and wash their entire bodies, in a fountain of water in an outer court kept for that purpose. When they enter the mosque, they bow again and again, some ten or twelve times, and at length prostrate their bodies upon the marble floor with their faces down, and, after a few minutes of silent prayer, rise upon their feet, make as many genuflections as at first, and leave the mosque. They have as much regard for, and keep Friday as sacredly, as we do

the Christian sabbath. They believe in Christ—that he did exist—and that he was a great prophet, even greater than Moses, but do not look upon him as the Saviour of the world. Instead of accepting Christ, they recognize Mohammed as their prophet and mediator. A man is stationed at the entrance to the mosque, whose duty it is to furnish visitors with slippers to put on their feet lest they defile the floor.

The Arabians are the descendants of Ishmael, and half-brothers of the Jews. Abraham had two sons—the first-born, Ishmael, by Hagar, an Egyptian hand-maiden; the second son, Isaac, by Sarah, his wife—both of whom received the blessing, with the promise that each should become a great nation. Hence they became two distinct peoples, and both claim Abraham as their father, and both races also reject Christ as the Saviour of the world. While the Jews number only about four million, the Arabs and their various offshoots comprise some ten or fifteen million.

Almost every spot of ground in and around Cairo is classic to the Christian world. This is the land in which Joseph ruled over the Egyptians; this is the land in which the sons of Jacob came to buy corn; this is the land in which Jacob and his descendants dwelt four hundred and thirty years; this is also the land into which Joseph and Mary fled with the infant Jesus, in order to escape the wrath of King Herod of Judea. When Jacob entered Egypt his family only consisted of seventy souls; when they took their departure, after the lapse of four hundred and thirty years, they had increased to six hun-

dred thousand men, besides the women and children and a mixed multitude who went out with them; doubtless the entire nation amounted in all to over a million. It must have been a grand sight to those who witnessed the exodus of this large concourse of people marching on foot, through the country, on their way back to the promised land. As I gazed over the large, picturesque, and fertile plain, dotted with the royal palm, and other scattering Oriental trees, the general topography and aspect of the country so clearly defined by the sacred Scriptures, I could almost imagine that I saw the great host on their march, the pillar of cloud leading them on by day, and the heavy curtain hung up by the hand of God to protect them from their pursuers by night.

This morning we took our departure from Cairo by the eight o'clock train for Alexandria; distance one hundred and twenty miles, fare twenty-five piasters each. We rode the greater part of the way along the margin of the Nile, the country rich in fertility and dotted with towns and hamlets. There are no forests, and but few groves, except of the date-palm, and orange and lemon trees, with an occasional sycamore, acacia, or mulberry-tree. The chief fruits are the date, grape, fig, pomegranate, banana, many kinds of melons, and the olive; the vegetables are of many kinds and excellent quality, forming the principal food of the common people. The most important field-products are wheat, corn, cotton, sugar-cane, tobacco, barley, millet, and flax. The cattle that we saw were in excellent condition; but the camels, which make long journeys in crossing the deserts, seemed

ill fed and badly kept. The birds of Egypt are not remarkable for beauty of plumage—in so open a country this is natural; among the birds of prey, the most common are of the scavenger class, such as the vulture and kite. Among the reptiles are crocodiles, frogs, snakes,



A WOMAN ON THE NILE.

etc.; the scorpion is found in the desert. Among destructive insects are locusts, which sometimes come upon the cultivated land in a cloud. Fleas are also prevalent; they not only annoyed us in the streets, but followed us to the hotels, and even besieged the bedchambers.

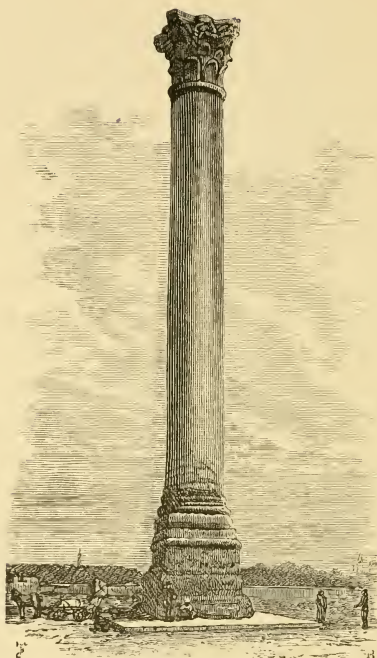
The inundation of the Nile, which commonly occurs

once a year, fertilizes and sustains the country and makes the river its chief blessing, a very slight overflow or failure of rising being the cause of famine. There is scarcely a country in the world where famine has raged so terribly, at different times, as in the land of Egypt. In the year 1199, in consequence of the great inundation, a terrible famine ensued, accompanied by indescribable enormities. Human flesh was a common article of food; man-catching became a regular business; and the greater part of the population were swept away by famine and disease. Even in the time of Joseph, the famine continued unabated for seven years, all the money of the inhabitants being spent in purchasing corn; they also parted with their horses, flocks, and horned cattle, and the very land which they cultivated was made over to the sovereign, in consideration of their receiving from the public stores a supply of food. The people were no longer the proprietors, but mere cultivators of the soil. The sovereign became the freeholder of the entire land in the kingdom, and his subjects were to pay him a fifth part of the produce by way of rent for the lands which they occupied (excepting those held by the priests, which were not sold), and eat the portion of food which Pharaoh gave them. It seldom rains in Egypt, excepting at the time of the equinoxes, when the country is inundated like India during the overflow of the Ganges, Indus, and other large rivers. During the dry seasons the people resort to artificial irrigation. As we ride along, wells may be seen scattered in every direction over the face of the country, both men and women being

engaged in drawing water to put on the land. We arrive in Alexandria at 1 p. m., having been five hours on our passage from Cairo, and take board in the *Hôtel de l'Europe* at sixty piasters a day.

The city of Alexandria is situated at the mouth of the Nile, facing the Mediterranean Sea, and contains about two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. It was founded by Alexander the Great, 332 B. C. The people are a mixed race, having representatives from almost every nation. They are of a dark copper-color, such as we have seen in Japan, China, and India. The women, when in the street, wear a close white veil with two small holes in front, of the size of a penny, to look through; and were it not for the veils it would be difficult to distinguish the men from the women, their dress is so very similar.

Alexandria is a famous seaport for all Egypt. When I was here in 1867 the streets were not paved, and it was decidedly the most filthy city that I had ever witnessed; but since then many of the narrow streets have been both widened and straightened, and paved with square blocks of stone, which give the city a fine appearance. The more distinctively Oriental part, however, remains with the same narrow streets, excepting that they have been paved, and are kept cleaner than formerly. Our hotel fronts on the great public square, which on either side is lined with fine residences in the European style. It seems as if we had already entered Europe, and left Egypt behind us. A throng of fashionably-dressed Europeans are promenading up and down



POMPEY'S PILLAR.

the square; and French and English equipages are seen driving by. The khédive has a handsome palace here, in which he resides during his short sojourn in Alexandria. This is the meeting-point of the East and West, of the old and new civilizations. Here are camels, donkeys, dock-yards, arsenals, steam-engines, factories, mills, and many other modern improvements, indicating that the old order of things has changed, and given way to the new. The Oriental part of the town abounds with

camels, goats, dogs, and Egyptian donkeys, the latter being used for carrying people and merchandise through the streets, and upon short jaunts, and the camels are employed in long journeys, for the transportation of merchandise and produce across the desert.

Pompey's Pillar is one of the attractive sights, erected 1495 B. C.; it stands on a dreary and solitary mound, which overlooks the lake and the modern city. It is a noble Corinthian column; the fluted shaft, which is formed of one piece of red granite, is seventy-three feet high, the circumference at the base is twenty-one feet, gradually diminishing to the top. At the eastern extremity of the city, in an opposite direction, stands Cleopatra's Needle, formed of one block of stone, seventy feet high. Another needle, of the same size and form as the first, lies upon the ground partly covered with sand. It was presented to the British Government by Mehemet Ali in 1820, but the vast expense prevented its removal.

Alexander the Great, with his Macedonians, entered and conquered the country 332 B. C. After him came the Greek dynasty, who ruled Egypt till it became a Roman province under Augustus Cæsar, 30 B. C. It was overrun by the Saracens A. D. 640, and became a Turkish province in 1517. From 1805 to 1849 Mehemet Ali was pasha and Viceroy of Egypt; and it is now governed by the khédive, Ismaïl Pasha.

The Scriptures have been strikingly fulfilled in regard to Egypt. From the second Persian conquest, more than two thousand years ago, until now, not a single native ruler has occupied the throne of Egypt.

CHAPTER XXXI.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

March 14th.—At nine o'clock this morning we take passage on board the French steamship *Erymanthe*, for Naples; distance about a thousand miles, fare two hundred and seventy-five francs apiece. Alexandria is one of the principal seaports bordering on the Mediterranean. As we are leaving the port we see flags floating to the breeze from the numerous mast-heads, representing almost every nationality, among them the stars and stripes of our own country. There are several lines of ships sailing almost daily to all parts of the Levant. Palestine may be reached twice a week, of which Jaffa, three hundred and twelve miles distant, is the chief port for tourists to the Holy Land; time twenty-four hours. I having visited Syria and Palestine on a previous tour, we therefore thought it best to go direct to Italy.

March 15th.—Our ship is filled with passengers of all nationalities—English, Americans, French, Italians, Spaniards, Egyptians, and Arabs—the greater part of whom are first-class people, very polite and graceful in their movements, especially the ladies. But the Mediterranean is not as graceful in its movements as some of the Eastern seas which we have traversed. It generally takes one or two days to get used to the sea and to one

another, and to learn each other's histories, when little groups begin to form; distinct nationalities commonly flock together, spending an hour or two either on deck or in the saloon.

March 16th.—This morning, and during the greater part of the forenoon, we sailed along the island of Crete, commonly called Candia. This is one of the large islands of the Mediterranean, it being one hundred and sixty miles in length, and fifty in its greatest breadth. Christianity was introduced into this island by the apostle Paul, who left Titus here as its minister to carry on the work which he had begun. I find, by referring to my log, that thus far we have traveled by sea and land about twenty-one thousand and seventy miles, of which sixty-five hundred and thirty were over land, and fourteen thousand five hundred and forty by sea; the distance in a straight line would have been much shorter, but we have made *détours* both up and down as well as around the world, all the way in search of the far West, and we have no knowledge at hand to show how much farther we have to travel before reaching its culminating point. Neither shall we, in going round the world, be able to recover the 20th of last October, which we virtually leaped over and lost from the calendar, as if we had not lived it, although by the canceled day we really lost no time from life's history. I am told, if we should return to America by the way we came, at the same spot upon the Pacific Ocean, we should recover the day. This is a scientific riddle, however, for scholars to explain, and it might form a feature for some future school examinations.

March 17th.—This afternoon we pass through the strait of Messina, two miles in width—the beautiful island of Sicily on one side, and the coast of the Italian Peninsula on the other. Here we see the volcano Mount Etna, looming up into the clouds in all its majesty, its summit covered with snow, while at the base vegetation is in bloom. It was not in eruption, although we could see a small volume of smoke at intervals issuing from its peak. Mount Etna is ten thousand eight hundred and seventy-two feet above the sea-level, and its base is twenty miles in circumference.

Sicily is the largest, finest, most fruitful, and most celebrated island in the Mediterranean. Its greatest length is about one hundred and eighty miles, by one hundred in its greatest breadth. It was in ancient times the seat of many flourishing Greek colonies, and the presumption is that its population then was double what it is at the present time. It has undergone many bloody revolutions. The Carthaginians once held it; then the Romans; afterward the Goths; then the Saracens, and again the Normans; afterward the French; and now it is held and governed by Victor Emmanuel of Italy. Messina, situated on the strait, is the chief city of the island, and is a prominent seaport for the shipment of oranges and other fruits to England and the United States. During the early part of the evening we passed by the volcano Stromboli, which is situated upon a small island, resembling a sugar-loaf. Earthquakes are of frequent occurrence upon the islands of the Mediterranean, but the climate is pure and highly salubrious.

March 18th.—At 1 P. M. we arrived at Naples, having been four days and four hours on our passage from Egypt. After our luggage had undergone a slight examination by the custom-house authorities, we rode to the Hôtel des Étrangers, getting board at ten lire per day each. A lira is equal to nineteen and one-fifth cents of American coin, and is the standard of value of Italy.

CHAPTER XXXII.

ITALY : NAPLES, ROME, PISA, GENOA, TURIN.

THE city of Naples is very handsomely situated on the side of a mountain, sloping gradually down to the Mediterranean Sea, winding itself round a spacious and beautiful bay, and contains a population of five hundred thousand. It is a very ancient city, founded by the people of Cumæ, a colony from Greece, who gradually spread themselves round the bay of Naples, and it was named from this circumstance Neopolis, or the "New City." It was also called Parthenope, from its being the burial-place of one of the sirens of that name. Naples was of old, as it is now, a chosen seat of pleasure. Its hot baths were not surpassed by any; and the number and excellence of its theatres and other places of amusement, its matchless scenery, the mildness of its climate, and the luxury and effeminacy of its inhabitants, made it a favorite retreat for the wealthy Romans. After the fall of the Roman Empire it underwent many vicissitudes, and, notwithstanding the calamities it has suffered from war and earthquakes, it is to-day the most populous city in Italy.

March 19th.—Yesterday we arrived in port just in time to escape one of the most fearful storms that have visited this vicinity for many years. We came into port

at one o'clock in the afternoon, and the gale commenced at three, raging for three days and nights without intermission, during which time many ships along the Italian coast were wrecked. To-day the gale is still so violent that we dare not venture into the streets.

March 20th.—In regard to the manners and customs of Naples, they only can be learned by close observation of the habits of the middle class, for it is next to impossible for a stranger, even with good introductions, to know enough of the aristocracy of any large city to form a correct judgment of their domestic habits. Almost all families here, except those in the very highest ranks, live in stories or flats, each story being a distinct habitation. It is said that the society of Naples is anything but moral. The nobility are fond of great show and splendor. The women are proud, even when very poor; they never go out, either to walk or ride, without seemingly making strenuous efforts to fascinate the other sex. The streets are thronged with people, who thread their way through a thousand obstacles, pushing and elbowing each other in every direction, while laughing and exchanging jokes with the greatest good-humor. The people here, as in Paris and Rome, spend the greater part of their time out-of-doors—living as it were on the streets. While the higher class sit around the small circular tables on the sidewalks, sipping their wines and partaking of other luxuries, the common people occupy the middle of the streets, some with their portable stoves, dealing out from their frying-pans to the hungry the universal macaroni, which is the favorite dish of the Neapolitans, and filling

the air with the smell of frying and other culinary odors. Foreigners are soon recognized and besieged by the lower class of peddlers, offering canes, flowers, and other small trifles for sale, or wishing to clean boots; and many offered their services to guide us through the streets or to the public institutions, and by the cabmen we were importuned on every corner to take rides in or out of town.

March 21st.—It is principally in respect to its situation that Naples surpasses other Italian cities. The streets are somewhat winding, but of good width, paved with blocks of lava, laid in mortar, and are said to resemble the old Roman roads. The dwellings are well built, of a species of white limestone resembling marble, from five to six stories in height. The view from Naples embraces the whole coast toward the east, which is lined with a continuation of villages, and the picturesque little island of Capri rising out of the sea in the distance.

It was in this city that St. Paul landed when on his way from Palestine, and thence, in company with other prisoners, passed overland into Rome to be tried for treason before Cæsar.

March 22d.—This morning we rode out some twelve miles, to the old volcano Solfatara. The ride was a pleasant one, over a good road winding around the bay of Naples. The early history of this old volcano is lost in antiquity; I am informed, however, that its eruptions caused much damage in former ages. It is situated upon a mountain, only a short distance from the sea, and its summit has the form of a basin or plateau. As I saw it

years ago, so it remained to-day, vomiting forth hot sulphur, steam, and smoke, making an angry noise and puffing like a steam-engine, and, though no fire was visible, doubtless it was not far distant, as the ground was quite warm, and in places upon the summit we saw pools of water mingled with mud, which had reached the boiling-point. We returned to Naples through the tunnel underneath the mountain, thus reducing the distance nearly one-half. On our return we visited the aquarium, which has the best supply of the inhabitants of the sea that I have seen in any part of the world.

March 23d.—We visited the museum, where many curious things are deposited from Pompeii, consisting of human skeletons, kitchen-utensils, lamps, carpenters' and smiths' tools, images, the skeletons of horses and dogs, pieces of charred books, cloth, cords, and a variety of other things brought from the ruined city.

March 24th.—We rode out to Mount Vesuvius, about twelve miles east from the city, and four from the sea. This famous volcano can well be ranked among the great natural wonders of the world. Vesuvius is not now in active eruption, but there is a continual issue of thick volumes of black smoke ascending from its crater for several hundred feet, which we saw on our passage to Naples, some forty miles distant. When I was here in 1868, Vesuvius was in full eruption, vomiting from its summit volumes of smoke, mingled with fire and volcanic matter, which ascended a thousand feet or more. As the lava issued from the volcano it ran down through a ravine on the side of the mountain, like a small river of

red-hot metal, of a bright-crimson color, and of the consistency of thick mortar. In its onward course it spread over the side of the mountain, covering a superficial area of from forty to fifty acres of ground, presenting one of the grandest and most sublime spectacles in Nature ever beheld by man.

About three years ago Vesuvius was again in active eruption, which continued for several weeks, presenting scenes of horror and devastation seldom witnessed. It is said, by those who observed the occurrence, that great volumes of dense, white smoke, like fleeces of wool, ascended from the crater to the height of five thousand feet or more, accompanied by earthquake-shocks, making a deafening noise, roaring like ten thousand thunders, while clouds of ashes, dust, and red-hot stones were carried to a distance of some ten or twelve miles. More than forty thousand persons fled from Naples to escape the impending danger, among whom sixty were killed and many wounded. Witnesses of such sights and sounds might well fancy themselves assisting at the cannonading of some tremendous fortress, accompanied with continuous explosions of powder-magazines; but the last eruption was still more fearful, and can scarcely be realized by those who did not witness the occurrence.

Vesuvius was a burning mountain two thousand years before the Christian era. Its fires slumbered for a while, but just before the time that Paul landed in Naples it was seized with convulsions, by which the whole region was shaken, and both Pompeii and Herculaneum were overwhelmed and destroyed.

March 25th.—We visited Pompeii, which fronts on the bay of Naples, not far from Vesuvius. Pompeii was demolished by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in the year A. D. 79, and continued buried under ashes and other volcanic matter until within a few years, when the Neapolitan Government commenced making excavations to learn more as to the identity of the lost city. Pompeii has the reputation of being the most wonderful of the antique cities of Italy, and scarcely second to any in the world. The walls of this mysterious town are about twenty feet thick and twenty-five feet high. The streets are very well paved, curbed, and guttered, and have sidewalks. The design of the dwellings and institutions is very good; some of the edifices are built of square blocks of white and colored marble, and others of brick. Judging from appearance, one would think that some of them have not been constructed more than a score of years. We turn to the right and to the left, and wander from street to street, and still we have the perfect image of a city before us, excepting that no inhabitants appear, and we can but imagine that those who occupied it have only left a few days ago. Some parts of this ancient city still lie, from ten to thirty feet deep, underneath olive-orchards and gardens, where we saw laborers at work digging and carting away the dirt from off the ruins of this once fine town. The melancholy destruction of such a large place, by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius, in a single night, without a moment's warning; the desolation which must have spread from dwelling to dwelling; the flight of mother, father, sister, and brother, from the

scene of terror and confusion, must awaken the deepest feelings of awe and sympathy in every human heart. We picture the sight of mothers with infants in their arms seeking safety and protection, gathering their little ones around them, trying to escape the impending danger, yet plunged into a fearful eternity.

I will now give a description of some of the most important edifices. As we entered the grounds we saw a number of petrified human bodies, some of them recently excavated from underneath the ruins. They bore a striking resemblance to white marble, and were quite as heavy and hard as stone; some of their features were as natural and distinct as on the night when suddenly buried by the torrent of lava.

The House of Pensa, occupying an area of over three hundred feet by one hundred and twenty, and fronting on four streets, is a large and interesting mansion. The garden or court was about half as large as the house, with the remains of a fountain in the centre, and a reservoir in one corner. In one of the bedrooms of this mansion five female skeletons were found.

The House of Apollo was another fine edifice, having richly-frescoed walls, with fountain and garden beautifully decorated. Upon one of the walls are figures of Apollo, Venus, and Juno.

The Temple of Jupiter is another large edifice, situated at the north end of the Forum. This location is the finest in the city, commanding from its elevated position a magnificent view of Mount Vesuvius.

The Forum is by far the most spacious and imposing

spot in Pompeii, occupying an elevated position about four hundred yards from the Herculaneum Gate.

The inner walls of the Temple of Augustus, or Pantheon, are richly decorated. Among the paintings found here is that of Ulysses, in disguise, on his return from Ithaca, meeting Penelope.

The Villa of Diomedes is an interesting and pleasant residence. Near the garden gate of this villa were found the skeletons of the owner and his servant, one holding in his hand the keys of the house, the other carrying a purse which contained one hundred gold and silver coins, bearing the inscriptions of Nero and Titus.

We saw a large number of mills, in different parts of the city, for grinding grain. They were built of two distinct pieces of granite; the lower stone was concave, about four feet in circumference and one foot through; the upper stone was convex, of the same size, cut in grooves, and resting on the lower one; through the head of the upper stone were two holes, in which to place bars, so that two persons could turn the mill. These mills reminded me of the parable in Scripture related by our Saviour: "Two women shall be grinding at the mill; the one shall be taken, and the other left." Here we also saw a large number of cooking-utensils, such as bowls, cups and saucers, pans and ladles, all of copper manufacture, and knives and forks, such as are now in general use; also carpenters' tools, saws, files, axes, augers, chisels, and many others, some of them quite as modern in their construction as those in use at the present day.

The edifices to which I have alluded are built with high ceilings, frescoed walls, and marble floors, surmounted with high, fluted columns with Corinthian caps, and somewhat modern in construction, all of which have been covered until recently with lava and other volcanic matter for the period of eighteen hundred years. Too much cannot be said or learned of these old ruins, with the condition of which every student of ancient history should be familiar.

March 26th.—To-day, owing to the prevalence of a sudden and unexpected storm, we are confined to the precincts of our hotel.

March 27th.—We called on B. O. Duncan, American consul, who cordially received us, and gave us much and valued information concerning Naples and its environs, and also of the people.

March 28th.—To-day we devoted chiefly to shopping. The stores are filled with rich and costly goods, of which red coral and lava-work are the specialties.

March 29th.—We spent the day riding in and around the town. There are many attractions to be met with in Naples and its suburbs, and one might profitably spend three months in the inspection of noteworthy and beautiful objects.

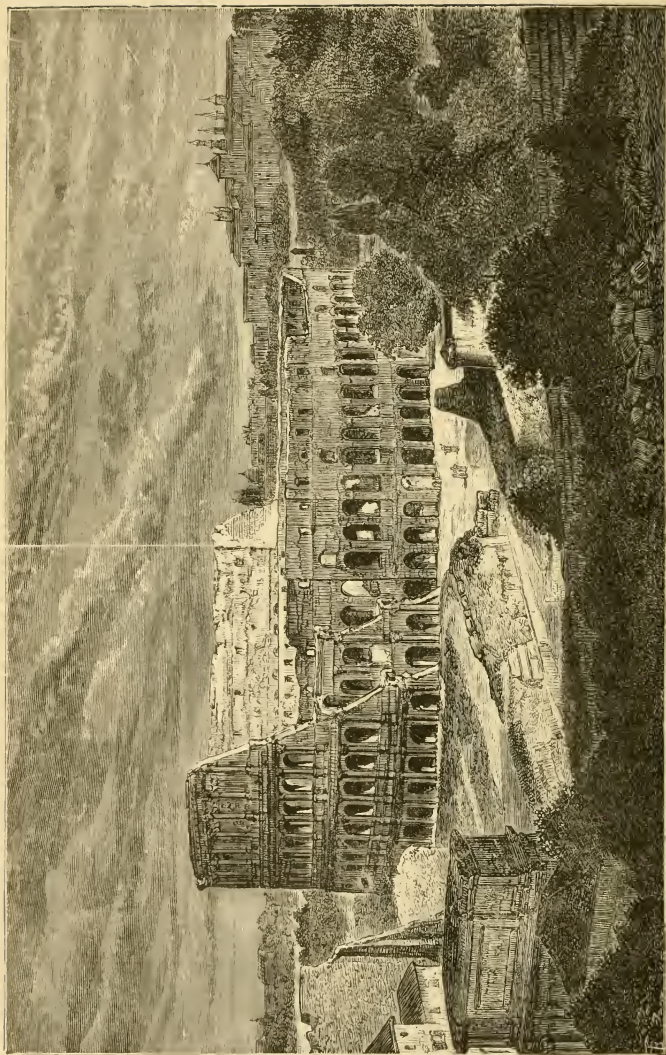
March 30th.—This morning we took our departure by the quarter-past six o'clock train for Rome; distance two hundred miles, fare twenty-seven lire each. The environs and suburbs of Naples are rich in scenery. When far distant from the city, we saw the smoke issuing from the crater of Mount Vesuvius, forming heavy,

dark clouds. At Caserta, not far from Naples, we passed by one of the king's country palaces. In the distance we caught sight of the range of the Apennines, which extends the entire length of Italy. Many of these mountains, it is said, are infested with bandits and robbers, who get their living by plunder. The land upon the plain is fertile; the farmers are now ploughing the ground, and some planting corn and potatoes. The country everywhere is covered with the mulberry-tree, which affords food for the silkworm, and supports for the grapevine. Every farmer is compelled by law to have growing upon his land a certain number of trees, according to the number of acres he works. The country is dotted with towns and villages; the more ancient are chiefly built either upon the sides or tops of the mountains, surrounded by stone walls; but the modern towns are now being constructed upon the plains, without walls. The country roads are macadamized and in excellent order, lined with ox-teams, donkey-carts, and foot-travelers, on their way to and from Naples. At 4.30 P. M. we arrived in Rome, and found our way to the Hôtel de Minerve, board nine lire per day.

March 31st.—The city of Rome is beautifully situated upon the river Tiber, partly on seven hills, which formed the chief site of ancient Rome. Four of these hills, once the scene of so many exciting and bloody events, are now covered by gardens and vineyards. Rome, once the most celebrated of European cities, and famous both in ancient and modern history—formerly as being the chief city of the most powerful nation of

antiquity, and afterward as the ecclesiastical capital of Christendom and the residence of the pope — now is under the government of the King of Italy. At an early period she was considered the mistress of the entire known world, holding in her grasp the destiny of all nations; her territory spreading over Europe, Asia, Africa, and the islands of the sea, teeming with millions of inhabitants. She is now reduced to a comparatively small town, surrounded by a zigzag wall, and containing only about two hundred thousand souls. The city is very well built, of a species of white stone or marble, giving the houses a pretty appearance, but the streets are both narrow and crooked, running in every conceivable direction, and thronged with people. The stranger and the unwary have to “blaze” their way through the noisy crowd, for fear of being lost at every crook and corner. Rome is characterized by fine churches, which are the centre of attraction to the pleasure-seeker and the curious. The city contains in all three hundred and sixty-five churches, of which St. Peter’s is the most prominent. This church is situated on Vatican Hill, overlooking the city, is built in the shape of a Latin cross, and is six hundred and seven feet in length by four hundred and forty-five feet in width; the height of the dome, from the pavement to the top of the cross, is four hundred and forty-eight feet. This church was one hundred and seventy-six years in building, at a cost, when labor was less than half what it is now, of fifty million dollars. It is decidedly the largest Christian church in the world, built of white marble, and its style of architecture is





THE COLISEUM, ROME.

modern, chaste, and classical. After one has beheld St. Peter's the interest is greatly lessened in seeing other churches. The pope is the head of the Catholic Church, and is assisted by seventy-two cardinals, some of whom reside in Rome, and others in different parts of the world. At the decease of the pope, a choice is made by election of one of the cardinals to fill his place, who holds the office for life.

I will only briefly advert to some of the principal antique edifices in Rome. The Colosseum was built A. D. 79, in honor of Titus, on his return from the Jewish war; sixty thousand captive Jews were employed for ten years in its construction. It is built of large blocks of white stone, four stories high, and consists of three orders of architecture—the first, Doric; second, Ionic; third and fourth, Corinthian. In each of the lower tiers there are eighty arches; the circumference of the building is sixteen hundred and forty-one feet, the height of the outer walls one hundred and fifty-seven feet, and the length of the arena two hundred and seventy-eight feet; the whole superficial area covers six acres of ground, and would seat eighty-seven thousand persons. At the time of its inauguration, which continued for one hundred days, five thousand wild animals and ten thousand captive Jews were slain within its walls for the amusement of the spectators. Titus himself died about this time.

The Temple of Venus was another famous structure, but there only remain to denote its site numerous fragments of marble columns strewed upon the ground. It was built by Hadrian, after his own design, and there is

a story to the effect that when it was finished he asked an eminent architect what he thought of it. The latter replied that it was very good for an emperor. Hadrian took such offense that he immediately sent for an officer of his guard, and ordered the architect's head cut off. This temple was constructed in the year A. D. 67. After its completion, people came from all parts of the Eastern world to see this royal palace, which is said to have been richly adorned with paintings and sculpture, and also to have contained the golden candlesticks and the golden tables, and other pieces of valuable furniture, brought by Titus from the great Temple of Jerusalem on his return from the Jewish War. But nothing is visible of those precious relics; now they either have been removed or else destroyed by the lapse of ages. The palace itself is in a decayed condition, although there is enough remaining to furnish evidence of its old-time magnitude and splendor.

The old Roman Senate-chamber is worthy of note on account of its historic associations. This chamber was once the scene of many bloody acts and exciting debates. It was in this hall that St. Paul pleaded his cause before Cæsar. There remain now only a few fragments of broken columns to identify the spot where the old Roman chamber once stood.

The Pantheon is also an edifice of great interest. It was built for a heathen temple by King Agrippa, in the year A. D. 27. It is circular, and contains one of the largest domes in Europe, supported by a bronze ring. The building is in a good state of preservation, and is

now used as a church for Catholic worship. It is not at all to be wondered at that edifices last for so long a period in these countries, since they are built in the most substantial manner of stone and cement combined. There is no wood in their construction to decay ; even the doors and window-frames are of bronze.

The Forum is of great interest. On entering it from the Via Bonella, we have the Capitol above us at the right, and at the foot of the walls the remains of the Temple of Concord, the three remaining columns of the Temple of Vespasian, and the colonnade of the Temple of Saturn. At a short distance looms up the Temple of Antoninus, and at the right are the huge ruins of Cæsar's Palace.

The Vatican is the capitol of modern Rome, and adjoins St. Peter's Church. It is three stories in height, and comprises an infinite number of rooms, galleries, corridors, chapels, a library of a hundred thousand volumes, and a museum of immense size. It has twenty courts, with eight grand stairways and two hundred smaller ones. In history it is the most celebrated of all papal palaces. It is composed of a mass of buildings erected by many different popes, covering a space twelve hundred feet in length and a thousand in breadth.

This palace is the pope's principal residence when he is in Rome. The grounds are laid out with very good taste, adorned with ornamental trees and choice flowers. The interior of the palace is very elegantly furnished, its walls decorated with the finest paintings, and its ceilings with the richest frescoes. By our *valet de place* we were

conducted through some of the principal chambers. We first entered the hall of audience for the ambassadors; this hall is finely decorated with stucco ornaments, and covered with frescoes, illustrating events in the history of the popes. We next entered the Sistine Chapel, which is approached from this hall. On admission, we paid the custodian a small fee. The frescoes on the walls are very fine, having been executed by eminent artists, employed by the different popes to do the work; the subjects are principally taken from the Old Testament, and are conceived in a spirit of sublime grandeur. The most attractive painting in this hall is opposite the entrance; it represents the last judgment; it is sixty feet high and thirty broad, and was executed by Michael Angelo. Here also is another large painting, representing the transfiguration. This painting seems to express the miseries of human life, and leads those who are afflicted to look to heaven for comfort and relief. The upper portion of the composition represents Mount Tabor; on the ground the three apostles are lying, deeply affected by the supernatural light which proceeds from the divinity of Christ, who, accompanied by Moses and Elijah, is floating in the air. On one side are nine apostles, and on the other a multitude of people. This splendid work of art was executed by Raphael.

We were also conducted through the Gallery of Statues, where we saw all kinds of sculpture. The principal objects of attraction are the two sarcophagi of immense size. One of them was for Constantia, the daughter of Constantine, who died A. D. 354; the other for the Em-

press Helena. There are many other things of note in the Vatican, which would require several days to examine satisfactorily.

The Mamertine Prison is one of the most revolting prisons that I have ever examined. Directly over it stands an old church, on entering which we were conducted through a gloomy stairway till we came to a trap-door, through which we entered, descending sixteen stone steps, worn by the footsteps of the countless throng of visitors, till we approached a dark chamber about thirty feet square, which is directly underneath the floor of the church; from this chamber we descended nearly as many steps as at first, to a lower chamber about the same size as the upper. We are now at least twenty-five feet below the earth's surface, where the light of the sun is never permitted to shine upon the countenances of those who are so unfortunate as to be locked up within the inclosure of its dark and gloomy walls. It was in this prison that St. Paul and St. Peter were incarcerated by Nero. After the two apostles had been confined in this dungeon for the period of nine months they were, by the order of Nero, taken out and executed. While St. Paul was being beheaded upon the Appian Way, some two miles outside of the limits of the present walls of the city, St. Peter, at the same hour, was hanging upon the ignominious cross on Vatican Hill, upon which spot St. Peter's Church has been erected in commemoration of the apostle's death; and there is also a very fine church erected over the spot where St. Paul fell a victim to the Romans, called St. Paul's Church.

April 1st.—We hired a carriage and rode out several miles into the country, upon the Via Appia. On the way we passed by the old church of St. Sebastian, named after the venerable saint, who was martyred. The country through which we rode is rather picturesque; the dwellings are of stone, with thick walls and small windows, and look as if they had stood for centuries, and would stand for centuries to come. The soil is not very fertile, though it could be made to produce very fair crops; but the farmers are seemingly devoid of enterprise or skill. During our ride, we occasionally passed antique ruins.

April 2d.—This being the Sabbath, we attend the Presbyterian church, located outside the city walls. The chapel is a neat little edifice, and will seat about three hundred people. Mr. and Mrs. Runnels, our traveling-companions, who joined us upon the circuit at San Francisco, left this morning *en route* for Switzerland.

April 3d.—This morning we left Rome by the quarter-past ten o'clock train for Pisa, distance about two hundred and twenty-five miles, fare forty lire each. The country in the vicinity of Rome is hilly, and not as fertile as in some other parts of Italy. At half-past eleven we stopped for a few minutes at Palo, facing on the Mediterranean Sea, where the country is more level. After leaving this town, we rode along the border of the sea nearly all the afternoon. At intervals we saw ships lying off at anchor, either taking in cargoes or discharging them upon lighters. The country-houses are all constructed of stone. The lower stories, or ground-

floors, of the farm-dwellings are occupied by cattle, and the people live above. We arrived at Pisa at 7.15 P. M., and put up at the Hôtel de Londres, board ten and a half lire per day. Here we rejoined our traveling-companions, who left us at Rome. The principal objects of interest in Pisa are the Leaning Tower and the old cathedral. We devoted the day principally to an examination of the statuary, of marble and alabaster, which are the specialties of the place. I purchased two handsome pieces of statuary, and made a shipment of them to New York.

April 5th.—We left Pisa this morning by the half-past eleven o'clock train for Genoa, distance a hundred and three miles, fare twenty lire. At one o'clock, we approach the marble-quarries in the mountains; the range stretches close to the Mediterranean. Before getting clear of the mountains we passed through ninety-two tunnels; about half the distance accomplished during the afternoon was made below the surface of the earth. We arrived in Genoa at 6.30 P. M., and took board at the Hôtel de la Ville, ten lire per day.

April 6th.—The city of Genoa, called the Superb, is handsomely situated on the Mediterranean, nearly surrounded in the rear by a succession of high hills, one gradually rising above another. The city is one of the principal seaports of Italy; it possesses an excellent harbor for shipping, and has a population of one hundred and forty thousand.

Genoa is a city of great antiquity, and has undergone many vicissitudes. The government was for a long time in a state of revolution, and contests were constantly

arising between the nobility and citizens. It was not till 1756 that it became tranquil. In 1797 the city was taken by the French. The walls of the city have frequently been enlarged; the older portion of the town is laid out in narrow and crooked streets, but in the new part they are wide and handsome. The climate is fine,



GENOA.

and the atmosphere pure and clear. Beggars are few in number, which makes it more agreeable for tourists and residents than most Italian cities.

Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa in 1442. A fine monument to his memory has been erected in the public square. Columbus was a man of penetrating genius,

and constantly ambitious of accomplishing something that would perpetuate his fame. He first applied to the city of Genoa for assistance in attempting discoveries in the Western seas, but it was refused, and he was regarded as a visionary. The same ill success attended him in his application to the courts of Portugal and England. He then went to Spain, where he received encouragement from Ferdinand and Isabella, who fitted him out with three small ships, and a sufficient supply of money. He soon discovered the island of Cuba, of which he took possession. On his return to Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella were much pleased with his great success. They then furnished him with a larger number of ships, and on his second voyage he discovered the group of Caribbean Islands and Jamaica. In his third voyage he discovered that part of the continent of South America where Carthagena was afterward built.

The cathedral of San Lorenzo is the centre of attraction in Genoa. This old cathedral was built in the eleventh century, in Gothic style, with a singular exterior, being formed of white and black stripes of marble. Some of the inscriptions in the church give the history of the foundation of the city. A beautiful statue of the "Madonna and Child," made of bronze, is erected in the church. The finest portion of the church is the chapel of John the Baptist. The canopy over the altar covers the sarcophagus in which are deposited the supposed relics of the Baptist, which are contained in an iron-bound chest. Here is also shown the dish out of which, it is said, Christ ate the Last Supper. Tradition says

that it was originally presented by King Solomon to the Queen of Sheba, and afterward preserved in the Temple. At the time when the combined forces of Genoa and Pisa captured Cæsarea, the Genoese took the emerald dish for their share of the booty, and it was brought to Genoa, where it was held in such veneration that twelve nobles were appointed to guard it. It was only exhibited once a year, and then the priests held it by a chain while being viewed by the crowd. So valuable was it then considered, that the Jews took it as security for a loan of four million francs, which they advanced to the Genoese for a period of forty years.

April 7th.—We take our departure this morning by the eight o'clock train for Turin, distance a hundred and four miles, fare forty lire. Shortly after leaving we pass through eleven tunnels. The country is mountainous and picturesque. For some distance we ride along the banks of a dry river-bed. Most of the mountains in Italy that are susceptible of cultivation are terraced, and covered with olive-trees and grape-vines. We arrive in Turin at 12.30 P. M., and put up at the Hôtel Trombetta, board ten lire a day.

The city of Turin is beautifully situated on a flat plain between two rivers—the Dora Susina and the Po. It is of an oval shape, measuring four miles around its walls, and contains a population of two hundred and twenty-five thousand. It has been repeatedly destroyed. The last severe injuries sustained were in the fifteenth century, at which time the suburbs were demolished, and also its public works. It was made a military station by

Julius Cæsar, on his invasion of Gaul. In the year 312 a great victory was gained by Constantine in its immediate vicinity. The Duke of Savoy took possession of it in the tenth century. In the year 1536 the French got possession and retained it for twenty-six years, and afterward lost it, but retook it in 1640. It was the old capital of the duchy of Savoy and of the kingdom of Sardinia, and on the union of all Italy under Victor Emmanuel it became for a time the capital of the new kingdom, which honor was subsequently conferred upon Florence, and finally upon Rome.

Turin is well built, the structures are uniform in appearance, and there is not a mean-looking house in the city; even the residences of the poorer classes are almost palaces. The buildings are of brick, coated over with white cement in imitation of stone. A profusion of running water keeps the fine white pavement clean. All through and around the city are fine, large shade-trees. From here the view is magnificent—the Alps on one side, and the Apennines in the distance on the other. The climate is more changeable, and much colder, than in the south of Italy.

We visit and are shown through one of the principal palaces; this one is elegantly furnished, with frescoed walls, ornamented with rich tapestry, and fine paintings and sculpture, executed by the best artists. The palaces in Italy are constructed in the most substantial manner, and with proper care look as if they might last till the end of time; the marble of which they are built does not crumble, or change color, as it does in America.

April 8th.—We leave Turin this morning by the half-past nine o'clock train for Geneva, distance some two hundred miles, fare thirty-nine lire each. About an hour after leaving, we come to and enter a deep ravine in the Alps, through which we ride the greater part of the day. The scenery was broken, and most interesting. At two o'clock we approach the Mont Cenis Tunnel, which took thirty minutes to pass through, from Italy into France. We stop at Modane, on the French frontier, where our baggage undergoes the usual examination by the officers of customs, and make a change of cars. At 7 P. M. we make another change at Culoz. We arrive in Geneva, Switzerland, at 11 P. M., and are conveyed to the Grand Hôtel du Lac, board ten francs a day.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

SWITZERLAND.

April 9th.—Geneva is splendidly situated at the southwesterly extremity of the beautiful lake of the same name, and contains a population of sixty-five thousand. The city is well built, the dwellings being lofty and constructed of white stone. The streets are winding, but of good width, and well paved with small blocks of stone.

April 10th.—The people of Switzerland have no distinct language of their own, but speak German, Italian, and French. Neither have they any particular standard of currency, but receive all kinds of money at par.

April 11th.—Geneva is especially noted for its clocks, watches, fine jewelry, and musical instruments. Among other things, I purchased a musical-box, of which I made a shipment to New York.

April 12th.—This being Good-Friday, the shops and stores are closed. The people in the forenoon mostly attend church, but the afternoon is devoted to both riding out, and sailing on the lake.

April 13th.—Geneva is more of a summer than a winter resort, for the reason that it is surrounded by a lofty chain of mountains, the highest of which are covered with snow the greater part of the year. Of course, the atmosphere is chilly during the winter. Mont Blanc

is the highest of the Alps, and from here is plain to our view. To ascend its loftiest peak requires two days of great fatigue in climbing. The ascent is never made without the assistance of some two or three guides, each of whom charges one hundred francs for his services, which would seem like a large price; and yet it is little enough for these poor fellows, who peril their lives to gratify a most unworthy curiosity.

April 14th.—There is nothing very striking in Geneva, excepting the charming scenery and the beautiful works of Nature by which it is environed. On riding out, we stopped at the old Protestant cathedral. The church is of stone, and in a good state of preservation. The pulpit is the same as when Calvin and other reformers preached from it.

April 15th.—We devote the day chiefly to shopping, and walking about the town.

April 16th.—The rich and magnificent scenery of the Lake of Geneva, and of the Alps, with their white variegated tops looming up into the clouds, cannot be adequately described. Some parts facing on the lake, more exposed to the sun, are covered for a long distance up the sides of the mountains with fine cultivated vineyards, which are most beautiful to look upon, while the margin of the lake is teeming with small towns and villages, some of them of great antiquity.

April 17th.—There are several steamboats engaged on the lake, carrying passengers both up and down, and a large number of yachts are constantly seen sailing over its placid waters.

April 18th.—This being our last day in Geneva, we devote it to rambling about, and sight-seeing.

April 19th.—This morning we take our departure *en route* for Paris, by the half-past ten o'clock train, distance three hundred and eighty-eight miles, fare seventy-seven francs apiece. The surroundings of Geneva are very beautiful. We ride along the border of the river Rhône, which is the outlet of the lake, until we get nearly out of the Alps. At length we pass through a long tunnel, and enter France.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

FRANCE: MÂCON, DIJON, PARIS, HAVRE.

ON our arrival in France, at the first station, our baggage undergoes another examination by the customs officials. Soon after starting, we strike off upon the plains, leaving the majestic Alps behind us. A 5 P. M. we break our tour by stopping at Mâcon, where we remain overnight, putting up in the Hôtel de l'Europe. Mâcon is a small town, containing about twenty-five thousand inhabitants; it is situated on the river Saône, tributary to the Rhône.

April 20th.—We resume our journey this morning by the eleven o'clock train, *en route* for Paris. The country through which we ride is rough, and not very inviting; the grape is the principal crop. We stop at Dijon for dinner. Dijon is the capital of the old province of Burgundy, and is now a great railroad centre; but, aside from that, presents nothing very attractive. We reached Paris at 10.30 P. M., procured a cab, and were driven to the Grand Hôtel de l'Athénée, which was full, hence we took up quarters in the Hôtel de St.-Pétersbourg, board ten francs each per day. The legal current coin of the country is the franc, equivalent to nineteen and one-fifth cents of American coin.

April 21st.—Paris is situated on the river Seine, which divides the city into two parts, but the municipal government is in one. The Seine at Paris is about two hundred yards in width, and is crossed by several fine bridges of stone. The river-water is clear, and has its outlet at Havre. The French capital contains nearly two million inhabitants, and is doubtless the most elaborately-built city in the world. The houses are constructed in a uniform style; some are built of white stone, easily cut, and others of a white, chalky clay compressed into blocks. When used these blocks become hardened by the effect of the atmosphere, and resemble stone. As they are laid in the building, they form the inner as well as the outer walls. Some of the dwellings are from six to seven stories high. There is no wood used in their construction, excepting for doors and casings; the floor-beams are of iron, and overlaid with tiles of stone, and the roofs covered with slate.

April 22d.—The streets of Paris are of good width; some of the principal boulevards are much wider than those of New York, and adorned with fine shade-trees of uniform size. All of the boulevards, as well as the country roads, are macadamized with limestone, and are as smooth as a floor; there are men constantly working upon them, and when they become uneven or broken they are immediately put in repair. Some of the streets are coated with a composition of coal-ashes and tar, which becomes as hard as stone and as smooth as glass.

April 23d.—There are several hundred hotels in Paris. The people generally live in flats (each story forming a

distinct habitation), and do little if any cooking in their dwellings, but commonly eat two meals a day in the hotels or restaurants. When the weather is warm and pleasant, the people spend their evenings chiefly upon the streets, having their tables and seats out upon the sidewalks spread with wines and other luxuries.

April 24th.—This being the Sabbath, we attended the Mission Chapel; the first sermon was in French, and the second in English.

April 25th.—The Parisians have long considered themselves at the head of civilization, both in matters of dress and fashion; they rank so by unanimous consent. They seem more noted for outside show than for stability and decision of character. Vice and iniquity abound in every circle, from the highest to the lowest. They have little regard for the Christian Sabbath, for it is kept as a day of recreation, visiting theatres, ballrooms, etc.; and horse-racing, gambling, and many other vices, are common on the Sabbath.

April 26th.—To-day we shift our quarters from the Hôtel de St.-Pétersbourg to the London and New York Hotel, which is beautifully situated in a fashionable part of the city—on Havre de Place—where thousands upon thousands of people are seen promenading in the public square daily.

April 27th.—To-day we devote to examining some of the principal edifices. The Place de la Concorde is one of the handsomest in Paris, if not in Europe; we have on our right La Madeleine, and De la Paix to the left; in the rear a portion of the city looms up overlook-

ing the Seine. We next enter the Place du Carrousel, which is situated between the two wings of the new Louvre, facing at right angles, with a fine park in front, adorned with large ornamental shade-trees of uniform size, and fountains and fish-ponds.

April 28th.—We visit the Colonne Vendôme. This column was erected by Napoleon in 1810, to commemorate the victories of the grand army in the German campaign. The bronze metal which covers this monument weighs one hundred and sixty tons, and was cast from the twelve hundred pieces of cannon taken from the battle-fields in that campaign. It was pulled down by the Communists after the Franco-German War of 1870-'71, and has recently been reërected upon the same spot.

April 29th.—The Palais Royal covers more ground than any other building in Paris excepting the Tuileries. It was erected for a palace, and used as such for several centuries, but is now turned into stores filled with all kinds of fancy-goods. The court within is very large, and entered by two gateways. The second floor, called the Glass Gallery, is seven hundred feet long by three hundred and twenty-eight wide, filled with all kinds of fancy articles, and thronged, I may say, with thousands of people. This is the principal place of resort for strangers visiting Paris.

April 30th.—To-day we attend the Congregational church; first sermon in French, second in English.

May 1st.—We meet with Dr. George Chandler, of Boston, with whom I traveled, in 1868, through Syria, Palestine, and Asia Minor. We also meet with Mr. and

Mrs. Coryell, of Shanghai, China, upon whom we called when in that city.

May 2d.—To-day we ride out to Bon Marché, or the cheap store of Paris, where most of the American and English ladies shop for silks and fancy-goods.

May 3d.—We visited the gallery of paintings at the Crystal Palace. This gallery is well worth a visit from those who have a taste for fine paintings and statuary; the place was perfectly crowded, and it will be safe to say that there were at least five thousand people present.

May 4th.—We visit the panoramic view of the siege of Paris, one of the largest and grandest ever witnessed. This view alone would compensate a traveler from America, even if he should see nothing else. The building in which the painting is shown is circular. The painting extends round the entire circle. Looking at the scene, not a particle of canvas is visible; the view is perfectly transparent. Instead of looking upon canvas, as in other paintings, I imagined that I was viewing it in the distance, through the atmosphere. Here we have spread before us both city and country, as far as the eye can extend. In the distance we have before us the German batteries, completely surrounding Paris, with the French hemmed within the city walls. During the siege of one hundred and thirty-two days, before an armistice could be agreed upon, the Parisians suffered greatly from hunger. In the vast picture we have all Paris before us, with its domes and steeples, and surrounding country in the distance, with the air filled with shells and other dangerous missiles of war, and numerous conflagrations

are seen all over the city. Thousands of workmen are represented as having been engaged, some removing the dead and wounded; others throwing up earthworks, and carrying bags of sand; while others were working upon the ramparts and at the guns.

May 5th.—Paris was conceded to have been one of the strongest fortified cities in the world, surrounded by a heavy stone-wall, extending thirty miles in circumference, surmounted with cannon of the largest calibre. Notwithstanding its prodigious strength, the Germans marched some five hundred miles over bad and broken roads with their heavy battering-trains, besieged and took this large and strongly-fortified capital in the short period of one hundred and thirty-two days. This signal success of the Germans was seemingly supernatural, as if the Lord were fighting their battles, as he did those of the Israelites against the Egyptians.

May 6th.—We devote the forenoon to a visit to the museum in the Louvre, where we examine a large collection of old paintings, executed by the best artists.

May 7th.—To-day we attended divine service in the Congregational church, which was well filled, the congregation being composed chiefly of Americans.

May 8th.—We hire a carriage and ride out to the Bois de Boulogne, over the Champs Élysées, which is the widest and finest avenue in Europe, if not in the world. The park contains large forest-trees, and some fine lakes of water, and the roads are excellent. But, in points of real variety and beauty, it does not compare with the Central Park in New York. I think that the Champs

Élysées, in the beautiful style in which it is laid out, and adorned with flowers and shade-trees, presents a much finer appearance than the park.

May 9th.—Paris, at the present day, is the acknowledged capital of the arts and sciences; it is also, without exception, the handsomest city in the world, and the one most resorted to by strangers from all quarters of the globe. The boulevards, which form the arteries of this famous capital, offer the most agreeable and picturesque promenades, shaded as they are by ornamental trees. The city received great damage at the hands of her own people during the late war, but there are scarcely any visible ruins remaining, excepting those of the palace of the Tuileries, which is now undergoing repairs.

May 10th.—We visit the Council of Arbitration. This is one of the best-regulated courts in Paris. It was founded for the purpose of settling disputes between masters and workmen in an amicable manner, and it is said that nineteen cases out of every twenty brought before it are satisfactorily adjusted. The council is composed of master-mechanics, elected by the different trades, and these trades are divided into four classes, each class having a council, so that the most intricate dispute is decided in a short space of time by the custom of the trade. How desirable it would be to have such a court of justice in the city of New York, where many of our judges have to decide matters of which, in many cases, they must be entirely ignorant!

May 11th.—To-day we devote principally to shopping. Among other things we purchased a fine megale-

toscopio. There are so many fancy articles in Paris that one can spend as much money as he wishes, and get nothing very substantial in return.

May 12th.—To-day I visit the fortifications of Paris. These works have been considered as among the best and strongest in the world. At a distance of about a mile outside the former walls runs an additional wall, about forty-seven feet high, bastioned and terraced, including seventeen outworks or forts, calculated for the mounting of twenty-seven hundred and sixty guns. In 1841, twenty million dollars were expended to complete and strengthen the fortifications. In some places they were much battered by the German army during the late war.

May 13th.—We visit the Tuileries. This palace is an immense building of white stone, and measures around its walls nearly a mile in extent, having a large court within. During the late war, it sustained much damage by fire.

May 14th.—We ride out to see the Obelisk of Luxor, presented by Mehemet Ali, of Egypt, to the French Government. It weighs two hundred and fifty tons; it is seventy-two feet high, seven feet six inches wide at the base, sloping up to five feet four inches at its top, and is one piece of stone. It took three years to bring this stone from Thebes, in Egypt, a distance of twenty-five hundred miles, at a cost of some four hundred thousand dollars.

May 15th.—To-day we leave Paris by the one o'clock train, *en route* for London, by the way of Havre and

Southampton; distance three hundred and forty-two miles, fare forty francs apiece. The country through which we pass is fertile, and the farm-houses are very well built. It has been my experience, in all countries through which I have traveled, to find that where the farm-houses look neat, and are painted or whitewashed, there the soil is universally good; but, where the dwellings have a poor, dilapidated appearance, we have strong evidence of inferior soil. We ride a great part of the way through the beautiful valley bordering on the Seine, and reach Havre at 5 P. M.

Havre is one of the principal seaports of France, and contains upward of one hundred thousand inhabitants. The city is situated at the outlet of the Seine, and possesses two very fine harbors, one natural, the other artificial. At 8.30 P. M. we leave Havre by steamship, and cross the Channel to Southampton.

CHAPTER XXXV.

ENGLAND : LONDON, LIVERPOOL.

May 16th.—We arrive in Southampton this morning at six o'clock, having been nine and a half hours crossing the Channel. Southampton is an excellent harbor for shipping, but it does not compare in magnitude with Liverpool. The city contains only about forty-five thousand inhabitants. Here, again, we have our trunks examined by the custom-house officials.

The legal currency of England is pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings; one English pound is equivalent to four dollars and eighty cents of American coin; one shilling, twenty-four cents; one penny, two cents; one farthing, one-half cent.

We resume our journey this morning by the 7 A. M. train, *en route* for London. The country, so far as we can see along the road, presents good farming-lands, under an excellent state of cultivation. We arrive in London at 10.30 A. M.

The city of London, the metropolis of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the most wealthy city in the world, contains a population of about three million four hundred thousand souls. It is situated on the river Thames, some ninety miles from the sea. It is built on both sides of the river, which is here

about twelve hundred feet wide, and is crossed by several stone and iron bridges. London was formerly the largest seaport in the world, but, in consequence of its being so far inland, and the river-current running so rapidly, it became somewhat hazardous for such an increase of shipping, so that her commerce has been of late years reduced and added to that of Liverpool and Southampton, which ports have easier access to the ocean.

London is of great antiquity. When it was in possession of the Romans it was inclosed by a heavy stone-wall, but there is nothing now visible of this ancient barrier. For several hundred years London had suffered much from fire and pestilence, but it is now considered to be one of the healthiest and best-governed cities in the world. The metropolis, with its suburbs, covers one hundred and twenty square miles. It is distinguished for its active air of business, which pervades it in every direction. The dwellings are plain and substantial, and the public buildings are built more for use than ornament.

May 17th.—To-day we go out to see some of the objects of interest; but there is so much to see amid the great throng of people, that we scarcely know where to go first. We finally make our way to the House of Parliament, which is comparatively a new building, having a frontage on the Thames of nine hundred feet. It is of white marble, decorated with rich statues and coats of arms, and in size is more than five times as large as the new City Hall in New York, but has not cost as much money. The House of Parliament is divided into two

parts; at the one end is the Chamber of Lords, and at the other the Chamber of Commons. The Houses are now in session. The members are dressed in black-silk gowns, nearly reaching to the floor, with white wigs upon their heads; to a stranger, unaccustomed to seeing such a style of costume, they would seem more like a body of old women than legislators.

May 18th.—Buckingham Palace is a fine building, and is the residence of the queen and royal family when they are in the city. The principal object of interest is the throne-room, elegantly decorated with rich striped crimson satin, with gold trimmings. On passing through we come to the queen's drawing-room, neatly furnished, and the walls adorned with choice paintings. We were conducted all through the palace (excepting the queen's private apartments)—the library, green drawing-room, gilt-room, and the sculpture-gallery—in all of which are choice pictures. Here is one painting for which George IV. paid five thousand guineas.

May 19th.—In addition to other places of interest, we visit St. Paul's Cathedral, the largest Protestant church in the world; in size it is next to St. Peter's in Rome. Its length is five hundred feet, by three hundred and eleven feet in breadth, and the height from the pavement to the top of the cross is four hundred feet. The large bell of this cathedral is only tolled on the occasion of a death in the royal family.

The English are a church-going people. It is said that there are over nine hundred churches in London. Many of them are remarkable for their antiquity, others

for their architectural beauty and elaborate finish. Bow Church is a handsome edifice, located in a very conspicuous position, on the south side of Cheapside. In this church the consecrations of the Bishops of London take place. St. George's Church is said to be remarkable for the numerous weddings which take place there.

May 20th.—To-day we visit the Bank of England, the most extensive banking institution in the world. It has in its employ more than one thousand clerks, with salaries ranging from one hundred and fifty to six thousand dollars per year. The building itself is not very attractive. The most interesting apartments are the bullion-offices, the weighing-office, the treasury, and the apartments where the bank-notes are printed.

The General Post-Office is another huge structure, built of marble in the Ionic style. This establishment employs over twenty thousand clerks.

May 21st.—This day being the Sabbath, we attend Rev. Dr. Spurgeon's church in the forenoon. This famous Baptist divine is about forty years of age, of medium height, and rather fleshy, with nothing very striking in his appearance, but easy and pleasing in his address, and possessing a loud and clear voice, which could be distinctly heard in every part of the house. His style of preaching is plain and simple, but logical, so that the most unlearned could understand every sentence; his words were expressed with great force and power, which seemed to thrill every heart. (Text, Hebrews vi. 19: "Which hope we have as an anchor of the soul, both sure and steadfast, and which entereth into that within the

veil.") The most profound silence prevailed in the audience. The interior of the church is oval, with two unbroken tiers of galleries, supported by iron columns, and will seat six thousand people. On this occasion the building was crowded to its fullest capacity; many were obliged to stand, and hundreds, if not thousands, could not gain admission. The preacher's argument was so clear, forcible, and childlike, that he reminded me of the apostles and the prophets. The congregation began to assemble at least an hour before the service commenced. Before entering the church, every stranger was presented with a small envelope, on which was inscribed this request: "Inclose your contribution within this card for the benefit and spread of the gospel of Christ."

May 22d.—This afternoon we go to see Madame Tussaud's exhibition of wax-figures. It is decidedly the finest collection of the kind in the world. The figures are of life-size, and so perfect in construction that on entering the room I imagined them to be living personages. They were all dressed in the style of the age in which they lived, to suit the characters which they were intended to represent. Among them we saw George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, and General Grant. We also saw the royal family of England; John Wesley, the founder of Methodism; John Knox and John Calvin, the great Reformers; and many others of note, all dressed in the style of costume of their own time.

May 23d.—To-day we ride out to see the Royal Zoological Gardens, in Regent's Park. This is one of the famous institutions of London. The fee for admittance

is one English shilling. There are some refreshing little lakes, bordered by ornamental trees and shrubs; and neat little thatched cottages, almost enveloped in the running woodbine. Here, too, the birds are filling the perfumed air with their heavenly music. Following the beautiful serpentine walks, we spy out the abodes of the bears, monkeys, and numerous other animals, gathered from every part of the globe, and forming one of the finest collections in England.

May 24th.—When I was in London on a previous occasion, I rode out to Windsor, which is reached by rail in about an hour. We went most of the distance along the border of the Thames, lined with small towns and villages. Windsor is situated on the Thames, and contains a population of about twelve thousand souls. The palace and castle cover a superficial area of ten acres. Windsor Park is beautifully laid out with roads and shade-trees, and contains seventeen hundred acres. We ascended the old castle-walls, whence we had the whole country spread out before us, with the picturesque Thames winding through the beautiful plains till lost in the distance; and as we looked through the old spy-glass toward London, the entire country appeared dotted with small towns and hamlets. We now enter and are shown through the old chapel, which is of great interest. Here we see the tombs erected to the memory of departed members of the royal family. The castle lies off from the town of Windsor, upon an elevation, ascended by steps, and completely overlooking the town itself. It is in this castle that the marriages of the royal family take

place, and on their death they are buried in the vault of this chapel. It is also in this chapel that the installation of the knights takes place. The interior of the castle is rich in decorations and works of art, embracing pictures, statuary, and bronzes. The principal gallery in which these works are shown is over five hundred feet in length. In the centre of the castle is situated the round tower in which James I. of Scotland was confined. A short distance from here is the residence of the late Duchess of Kent, the queen's mother, in which she resided during her lifetime.

May 25th.—St. James's Palace is more ancient in its general aspect than some others, but not so inviting. It was the residence of the sovereigns of England previous to Victoria's occupying Buckingham Palace; the queen, however, still holds drawing-rooms here. In this palace Charles I. took final leave of his children.

Lambeth Palace is situated on the bank of the Thames, and is the town residence of the Archbishop of Canterbury. It is an old edifice, and dates back to the middle of the thirteenth century. Its library contains a collection of some of the oldest manuscripts in Europe.

The Tower of London is said by tradition to have been built by Julius Cæsar. The fortress is, at all events, of great antiquity; it covers an area of ten acres, and its walls are at least fourteen feet thick. We were shown through the Barracks, Armory, Jewel-House, White Tower, St. Peter's Tower, and the Bloody Tower, in which Richard III. had his nephews murdered; the Brick Tower, in which Lady Jane Grey was imprisoned; also

the prison in which Anne Boleyn was incarcerated, and other rooms too numerous to mention. This fortress was used as a residence for the monarchs of England down to the time of Queen Elizabeth, and also as a prison for state criminals. It is said that many of the kings, queens, warriors, and statesmen, after having been incarcerated, were put to death within these dark and gloomy walls. Here we were shown the old execution-knife and bloody block once in use for chopping off the heads of royal and other criminals, and the gutter formed in the stone floor to carry off the victims' blood. We were also taken through the jewel-room, containing many of the jewels of royalty; they were inclosed in a large glass case, secured by heavy iron bars, among which we saw the crown made for Queen Victoria's coronation, at a cost of six hundred thousand dollars, and the large ring worn by the Black Prince, as well as the crown of the Prince of Wales, and also many other crowns said to have been worn by the various monarchs; here, too, are exhibited the gold and ivory sceptre, and the coronation spoon, which are estimated to be worth fifteen million dollars.

Westminster Abbey is of much interest. Its style of architecture is Gothic. Here both kings and queens have been crowned from the time of Edward the Confessor down to Queen Victoria; underneath its floor many of them have been buried. Here we see the monument erected to the memory of Mary Queen of Scots—Queen Elizabeth and Mary lie in the same tomb; here also are handsome monuments to the memory of Shakespeare, and scores of other great men.

From here we go to Hyde Park, which is the most fashionable park in London. All ranks and classes, from the peasant to the sovereign, may be found here on a pleasant afternoon. This park covers an area of four hundred acres; the grounds are mostly level, and the paths are not very winding. There is a beautiful lake connected with the park, which winds round in many forms, and the shade-trees are very large.

We make an excursion some few miles down the Thames to Greenwich. We pass by the ship-yard in which the steamship *Great Eastern* was built; also the East India Company's docks, in which the principal shipping of London lies. These docks, or quays, extend over a mile along the river-front, and as far back. They consist of large basins, excavated for the purpose of taking in ships; at short intervals, fronting on the river, there are locks, through which the ships enter into the basins at high tide, and which are kept closed at low water. In consequence of the great rise and fall of the tide, it is impracticable to have the shipping exposed at the river-front. We passed by a ship which had grounded in the river at high water; she lay high and dry at low tide, so that her keel was visible. The great rise and fall of the tide in the Thames are detrimental to the shipping interests of London, and much of her commerce, as previously remarked, has been diverted in consequence to Liverpool and Southampton, where vessels have easier access to the sea.

The principal edifices in London are not so elaborate in style and finish as are those of Paris, and there is also

a marked difference in the population of the two capitals. While the people of Paris are all for fashion and outward show, those of London have more regard for domestic comforts.

May 26th.—This morning we leave London by the ten o'clock train, over the Northwestern Railway, for Liverpool; distance two hundred and seventy miles, fare twenty-nine shillings. Just outside of London, the country is lined with beautiful gardens teeming with luxuriant vegetation, and the wide avenues are filled with heavy teams loaded with produce going into the city. The face of the country is somewhat rolling, but fertile. The farms are large, but the dwellings rather small; the barns and out-houses are of good size, all of brick, built in the most substantial manner.

It is a most singular fact that when two strange Englishmen meet in a railway-carriage they will not converse together, without a formal introduction. We were accompanied by two well-dressed, respectable-looking Englishmen, strangers to each other; one seemed more genial than the other, and asked his countryman some simple question, to which he made no reply, but the latter was very willing to talk with us Americans, whereupon they both joined in conversation with us, as if we had been old acquaintances, but would not exchange a word between themselves, though we were most cordially treated by both.

At 3 P. M. we arrived in Liverpool and put up at the Washington Hotel; board will average in this hotel about fifteen shillings per day.

May 27th.—Liverpool is situated on the river Mersey, about two miles from the sea, and has a population of more than seven hundred thousand souls. It is the largest seaport in the world, except New York. Her docks and quays have no equal; they are built of large blocks of cut granite, fastened together with heavy iron bolts. When a ship arrives in port she is locked in the dock, and there remains till discharged of her cargo.

May 28th.—This being the Sabbath, we attend the Wesleyan Methodist church.

May 29th.—Liverpool, in activity, is similar to London, New York, and other large commercial ports, full of bustle and noise, and has gotten to be rather a pretty city. Some fine hotels have been recently erected, but the great majority of American tourists hitherto, from the Continent, have only stopped here long enough to make ready to take ship for home.

May 30th.—To-day I ride out to the ship-yards, to examine the building of iron vessels. They have machinery so perfect for shaping iron for the construction of ships that an iron vessel can be put together more cheaply, and in less time, than it requires to build a wooden one. They cut up and plane iron with as much apparent ease as the ship-builders in America work wood. A steamship in England can be built of iron, with engines, masts, sails, rigging, all complete, for one hundred dollars per ton, and a sailing-ship for from sixty to seventy dollars per ton. Something of this facility, if not cheapness, in building iron steamships is being shown in this country by Mr. John Roach at Chester, Pennsylvania.

May 31st.—To-day I devote chiefly to examining the dry-docks in Liverpool, which are the best and largest in the world. They are constructed of large blocks of granite, and bolted together in the most substantial manner. The largest which came under my observation was eight hundred feet long, having in dock three large ships lying in a line, one ahead of the other. The ships are floated in at high tide, and then the gates are closed; at the following low tide the water is let out by a sluice-door at one end of the dock; when the water is out—which has a fall of from sixteen to eighteen feet—then the gate is closed, leaving the ship dry without any pumping, although they have pumps constructed in case of accident to the gates. The largest ship-of-the-line can be docked in less than an hour. The wages for ship-carpenters and calkers is four shillings and sixpence per day, which is considerably less than the rate paid in the United States for similar work.

There is another style of dock in Liverpool—commonly called basins. In consequence of the great rise and fall of the tide, and the swift current in the Mersey, there is great danger in anchoring vessels in the stream, and all ships are floated in these basins at high tide, and there remain locked in until their cargoes have been discharged or shipped. These docks, or basins, have gates for ingress, which are kept closed, being only opened at high tide to let ships in or out; hence the basins are kept constantly filled with water, so that there is no rise nor fall of the water as of that in the river. They are built of large blocks of granite, laid in mortar, strapped

and bolted together with iron rods in the strongest manner. These docks reach along the river frontage some six or seven miles, making a complete and safe harbor for shipping.

June 1st.—We ride out on the Park road, over which is a fine drive, and one of the principal resorts in Liverpool. The country mansions are of stone, mostly in Gothic style, with their lawns laid out in winding roads; the dwellings are hid by large shade-trees, which give them a lonely appearance, and they do not present that cheerful and lively aspect that the more modern country cottages of America do.

June 2d.—This morning we leave Liverpool by the ten o'clock train *en route* for Holyhead, Wales; distance one hundred and ten miles, fare twenty shillings each. At twelve o'clock we stop at Chester, and put up at the Queen's Hotel, board twelve shillings per day.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

WALES: CHESTER, BANGOR, HOLYHEAD, CONWAY.

June 2d.—Wales is the southwestern portion of the island of Great Britain. Its greatest length is ninety miles, and it varies from forty to eighty miles in breadth. Into this country the ancient Britons retreated from the advances of successive invaders, and here maintained their independence. The Romans were unable to reduce them to complete subjection.

This mountainous country, defended by British valor, remained the secure retreat of British independence, and was never entirely subjected to the crown of England till the reign of Edward I., who, in order to reconcile the Welsh to the English yoke, sent his queen into the country, where she gave birth to a son who was duly acknowledged as their prince. From that period to the present, the eldest son of the King of England has been styled the Prince of Wales, and as such has derived certain revenues from the country.

June 3d.—In the natural aspect of the country, its mountains and hills, its valleys and glens, its lakes and rivers, few regions can be said to surpass Wales in beauty and grandeur; while almost every foot of her territory is associated with historical events of more than ordinary interest, since it abounds in the remains of antique en-

campments, fortresses, castles, and castellated mansions. At different periods a great variety of specimens of military architecture has been found, exhibiting the diversified styles of different ages. The inhabitants, too, are still a distinct and very remarkable people, and, in the remoter districts, yet speak the language of their British ancestors.

June 4th.—The city of Chester is situated on the elevated banks of the river Dee, by which it is bounded on the south and west sides. The Romans are believed to have been its founders, and its site was selected by them for one of their chief military stations. Many remains of Roman antiquity have at different times been discovered in its vicinity, such as lamps, urns, statues, weapons of war, coins, pottery, and other curious specimens of the conquerors' arts. Chester is surrounded by thick stone-walls, constructed by the Romans, which afford a very agreeable walk of about two miles. In making the circuit of the town, on the top of this wall, a fine view is obtained of the surrounding country in every direction, and an opportunity afforded for observing the peculiar construction and antiquated architecture of the city. The surroundings of Chester abound in rich gardens, delightful groves, stately trees, and fragrant flowers.

The old castle was a noble structure in the olden time, little of which, however, now remains, excepting a tower bearing the name of Julius Agricola, who, in the year 78 A. D. commanded the Roman forces in Britain, of which he was made governor, extended his conquests into Scotland, and built a chain of forts from the Clyde

to the Frith of Forth. A more modern edifice has been substituted for the old fortress, designed for the use of the garrison. It contains forty thousand stand of arms, besides one hundred pieces of ordnance.

June 5th.—We leave Chester by the twelve o'clock train *en route* for Holyhead; but break our tour again at Bangor, three hours' ride from Chester, where we put up at the British Hotel, which is the best in the town, at eight shillings per day. The hotel is small, but tolerably well kept. Bangor, situated on or near the straits of Menai, is a town of great antiquity. The rising grounds about the city in every direction afford extensive prospects, embracing a great variety of coast and mountain scenery. Owing to its peculiar situation, it has long been a favorite place of resort, and the number of visitors has greatly increased since the construction of the suspension-bridge across the Menai Straits. The city, including the suburbs, contains about fifteen thousand inhabitants. The most important buildings are the old cathedral, the episcopal palace, the meeting-houses of the various denominations, Roman Catholic church, Free School, Union Poor-House, Market-House, Assembly-Rooms, Temperance Hall, and three banks.

June 6th.—In the forenoon we attended the Wesleyan Methodist church; in the afternoon we went to the cathedral. The foundation-walls of this old edifice were laid in the fifth century, but the building has been destroyed by its enemies, in different wars, some two or three times, and as often rebuilt. In some of the churches preaching is in the Welsh language. It is a

singular fact that in the British Isles the people speak five distinct dialects — Welsh, Lowland Scotch, old Gaelic, Irish, or Erse, and English; the latter, of course, is the prevailing language, and is spoken by the educated throughout the kingdom.

June 7th.—To-day we ride out some seven or eight miles to the slate-quarries. This is one of the most interesting excursions made from Bangor, over a good country-road. These quarries are the largest in England, employing some three thousand men to work them. On our return we rode through the village of Bethesda, containing about five or six thousand inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in the slate-quarries. We also passed by Lord Penrhyn's castle, which occupies a commanding elevation. It is constructed in the Norman style of architecture, and displays a vast range of buildings, crowned with lofty towers. The adjoining park is studded with stately trees, and is seven miles in circuit.

June 8th.—We visit the market-house, where all kinds of meats, poultry, and vegetables, are offered for sale. It was most amusing to see the country-people come in, some on foot, others in carts, the latter mostly driven by women. The fish-women were the most striking in appearance; they were generally young and pretty, very neat and tidy, and looking characteristically Welsh in their white caps and bright-colored petticoats. It is said that they never marry out of their own class.

June 9th.—We visit Prospect Park, by ascending a mountain upon whose summit the park is situated, whence a magnificent view is obtained of the town, lying

almost at our feet, with a picturesque landscape in the distance, dotted with towns and hamlets.

At 3 P. M. we resume our tour. On reaching the railway-station we meet with Captain Grant, of the Royal Navy, who accompanied us on our passage of fourteen days from Hong-Kong, China, to Ceylon. At 4 P. M. we arrive at Holyhead, and put up at the Royal Hotel; board eight shillings per day.

Holyhead is situated upon an island, or more properly a peninsula, which at high tide becomes insulated. From this point the English mails cross twice every day to Ireland. It is also the point of termination of the great railways from London and Chester. The rocky scenery around Holyhead is uncommonly grand and romantic. The city contains about seven thousand inhabitants, and there is more of an air of activity and business about it than one might expect in such a remote region.

June 10th.—Whit-Monday is kept in Wales as a general holiday. The stores and shops are all closed, and the people promenading the streets. In the afternoon we went upon the lawn fronting on the sea, where young gentlemen and ladies were enjoying themselves by moving around a ring, formed by some of them clasping hands, while others, running around the circle, kissed each other, after the manner of little school-children.

June 11th.—The breakwater, which is built out into the Irish Sea at Holyhead, is one of the finest in Great Britain. It not only protects the shipping, but forms a complete fortification for the protection of the city in

case of an invasion, and also makes a very fine promenade for pedestrians.

June 12th.—The promontory of the Head is formed by an immense precipitous rock. The part next to the sea is hollowed into caverns, affording shelter to innumerable sea-birds, whose eggs are highly esteemed as a delicacy; and the only way in which they can be procured is by men descending from the summit by means of a rope tied around the body and fastened to a stake above—which, of course, is a very hazardous proceeding.

June 13th.—We leave Holyhead by the twelve o'clock train for Liverpool, with the determination of taking ship to-morrow for America. After having traveled so long a distance, I begin to realize that the world is too large and life too short to see everything; hence we turn our faces homeward. At three o'clock we make a halt at Conway.

This is a small town, but it is beautifully situated upon the high bank of a river of the same name. The town is surrounded by a wall twelve feet thick, strengthened with towers and battlements. The great object of interest is the old castle, erected in 1224 by Edward I. When in its perfect state, this castle must have been superior to any fortress in Britain. It is situated on the verge of a precipitous rock, one side bounded by and overlooking the river, and the other facing a deep ravine. The walls are of great thickness, and surmounted by watch-towers. The interior of the castle was originally divided into two courts, the largest one hundred and thirty feet long, with a lofty ceiling. This old castle is

now in a dilapidated state, nothing but the walls remaining.

From Conway we proceed to Liverpool. The farms along the route are not as large as in some other parts of Great Britain, but the vegetation is prolific. The scenery is beautiful and varied, and the fields are inclosed by hawthorn-hedges, which are now covered with green leaves and white blossoms, filling the air with sweet and refreshing odors.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ATLANTIC OCEAN.

June 14th.—To-day we embark on board the steamship Italy, and take passage for New York. The ship leaves Liverpool at 2 P. M.; distance by the course which the vessel takes about thirty-two hundred miles; fare, for state-room, thirty-six guineas for us two. The Italy is one of the finest ships of the fleet to which she belongs, built of iron, propelled by a flange-screw, full rigged, of the capacity of forty-five hundred tons, and consumes forty-five tons of coal every twenty-four hours. Her crew, including officers, servants, and sailors, consists of over one hundred men. We have in company fifty-four first-class passengers, among whom are Commodore Calhoun, of the United States Navy; Rev. Isaac Pierson, missionary to China; Rev. W. Linton, Rev. Dr. Collyer, Rev. Father O'Connell, Mr. Sawyer, of Dublin, and many others of note.

June 15th.—Weather clear, and wind blowing hard from the northwest. At 2 P. M. we arrive in the harbor of Queenstown, two hundred and forty-four miles from Liverpool. Here we remain for a few hours taking in freight and some additional passengers. On the arrival of the British mail, which left London last evening by the way of Holyhead, the ship's anchor is weighed and

we steam out of the harbor, during the afternoon and evening sailing close along the coast of Ireland.

June 16th.—Sky overcast, strong head wind from the northwest, and rough sea. Thermometer 45° . Course west; latitude $51^{\circ} 4'$ north, longitude $13^{\circ} 43'$ west. Distance run from Queenstown, up to 12 m., two hundred and thirteen miles. With the exception of the China Sea, we found the winds and waves nowhere so boisterous as on the Atlantic. Many of our passengers to-day are sea-sick, which is more unpleasant and distressing than almost any other sickness.

Sea-sickness is caused by the motion of the ship—the pitching and rolling of the vessel, or the alternate rising and falling of the bow and stern. Some people never suffer from it, others only on their first voyage; others, again, in every voyage they undertake. With some it only continues for a few hours, while others suffer almost constantly throughout a long voyage. In most cases, however, the sickness subsides as soon as the sea becomes smooth, and always disappears on landing. One always feels much better after being sea-sick for one or two days, and its effect is much better for the system than a regular course of medicine.

June 17th.—Weather cloudy, wind blowing hard from the northwest, and sea running high. Thermometer 40° . Course west; latitude $50^{\circ} 42'$ north, longitude $19^{\circ} 6'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and five miles.

June 18th.—Weather overcast, wind blowing hard from the northwest, and sea high. Thermometer 41° .

Course west; latitude $49^{\circ} 43'$ north, longitude $25^{\circ} 11'$ west. Ship ran, up to 12 m., two hundred and forty-two miles. This being the Sabbath, divine service was conducted by the Rev. J. Pierson, missionary from China.

June 19th.—Weather cloudy, wind blowing a gale from west-northwest, and sea high. Thermometer 39° . Course west; latitude $48^{\circ} 15'$ north, longitude $30^{\circ} 42'$ west. Ship ran, up to 12 m., two hundred and thirty-five miles.

June 20th.—Sky overcast, wind blowing hard from the west-northwest, and sea high. Thermometer 38° . Course west; latitude $46^{\circ} 8'$ north, longitude $36^{\circ} 11'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and sixty miles.

June 21st.—Weather foggy, wind blowing hard from the northwest, and sea running high. Thermometer 37° . Course west by south; latitude $44^{\circ} 15'$ north, longitude $41^{\circ} 30'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and fifty-three miles.

June 22d.—Weather both foggy and stormy, wind west, and sea not so high. Thermometer 38° . Course west by south; latitude $42^{\circ} 35'$ north, longitude $47^{\circ} 25'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and seventy-six miles.

June 23d.—Weather foggy and stormy, wind strong from the southwest, and sea running high. Thermometer 50° . Course west by south; observation taken by dead reckoning, latitude $42^{\circ} 11'$ north, longitude $53^{\circ} 25'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and sixty miles.

June 24th.—Weather more mild, wind southwest, and sea not as high. Thermometer 60° . Course west by south; latitude $41^{\circ} 42'$ north, longitude $59^{\circ} 10'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and sixty-six miles.

June 25th.—Weather clear, wind fresh from the southwest. Thermometer 61° . Course west by south; latitude 41° north, longitude $64^{\circ} 43'$ west. Distance run, up to 12 m., two hundred and fifty-five miles. To-day we have preaching by the Rev. Mr. Linton, of London.

June 26th.—Weather warm and foggy, wind light from the southwest, and sea smooth. Thermometer 70° . Course west by south; latitude $40^{\circ} 31'$ north, longitude $70^{\circ} 43'$ west. Distance run two hundred and seventy-three miles. At 12 m. we are within one hundred and thirty-two miles of New York. In consequence of the fog, the steam-whistle has been constantly sounding for the last twelve or fifteen hours, and at intervals fire-rockets are sent up, lest we should come in collision with some vessel.

June 27th.—Some time during the night we were boarded by a Sandy Hook pilot. This morning early we have in view the Highlands of the New Jersey coast, and then the green shores of the harbor; and soon after the spires of New York City rose on our sight, all of which seemed as familiar as things but of yesterday. At 7 A. M. we arrived at the quarantine-ground, where we remained for about an hour, waiting for the health-officer, and the city about nine o'clock. After having our trunks examined, we returned to our home in safety.

During our sojourn we have traveled, by sea and land, twenty-seven thousand five hundred miles—eight thousand five hundred and twenty-eight miles by land and eighteen thousand nine hundred and seventy-two miles over sea—and here we are at home again.

I am very glad that we have got through with our travels and adventures without any evil befalling us, for which we shall ever remain thankful. I can but attribute our great success in the avoidance of ills to a kind Providence, which has been over us in all the perils we have encountered by sea and land.

Of all the countries through which we have traveled, there is none that struck us more favorably in its general aspect than that of the United States, with her majestic mountain scenery, broad prairies, and grand old forests, lakes, and numerous rivers, with all the varieties of climate, and, above all, rainfall in its regular course in due season, bringing forth prolific crops, which are the greatest of all blessings that can be bestowed upon mankind.

The making the circuit of the globe is a mere question of taste, time, and means ; although there is no tour that can be made which is of more interest, for there is a great deal to be seen and learned that can be practically acquired neither in Europe nor America. The most favorable time for making the tour is to leave New York in the month of August ; spend a month or six weeks in crossing the American Continent, which time can be profitably devoted to points of interest along the line of the Union and Central Pacific Railroads ; stopping at Niagara Falls, Chicago, Salt Lake City, and San Fran-

cisco, though many other places of importance may be seen. It is best to leave San Francisco as early as the first of October for Yokohama, by the Pacific Mail Company's ships, spending about four months in traveling through the warm countries of Japan, China, and India, leaving the latter country not later than the first of March, for Egypt, in order to avoid the extreme heat of the Red Sea. From Egypt proceed to Syria and Palestine, and spend the following summer on the Continent of Europe and Great Britain.

We suffered none from cold; neither did we experience any very hot weather, excepting in the south of India, where, I must confess, it was rather too warm for a few days. The thermometer ranged, in the different countries, all the way from 33° to 87°.

It is well to state that the journey was made without the occurrence of the slightest illness to either of us, excepting slight sea-sickness; without missing a steamer or train, without accident of any kind, and without the loss of the most trifling article.

THE END.







